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REPORT RESUMES

ED 002 955 24

MASS COMMUNICATIONS AND POPULAR CONCEPTIONS OF EDUCATION, A CROSS-CULTURAL STUDY.
BY- GERBNER, GEORGE
ILLINOIS UNIV., URBANA, INST.COMMUNICATIONS RES.
REPORT NUMBER CRP-876 PUB DATE 64
EDRS PRICE MF-$0.99 HC-$27.04 676P.

DESCRIPTORS- *MASS MEDIA, *COMMUNICATIONS, *EDUCATIONAL ATTITUDES, *PUBLIC OPINION, *CULTURAL DIFFERENCES, COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS, GENERAL EDUCATION, STATISTICAL SURVEYS, INFORMATION DISSEMINATION, SYSTEMS ANALYSIS, INSTITUTIONS, URBANA, ILLINOIS, EUROPE

CONTRIBUTIONS OF MASS-PRODUCED INFORMATION AND ENTERTAINMENT TO THE DEVELOPMENT OF PUBLIC IMAGES IN EDUCATION WERE INVESTIGATED IN THE UNITED STATES, WESTERN EUROPE, AND EASTERN EUROPE. THIS PROJECT SERVED TO CREATE A MODEST HISTORICAL DIMENSION AND A CROSS-CULTURAL COMPARATIVE PERSPECTIVE OF CERTAIN DYNAMIC ASPECTS OF MASS MEDIA EDUCATION (THROUGH INFORMATION, PERSUASION, OR ENTERTAINMENT) WITH RESPECT TO FORMAL EDUCATION SYSTEMS OF COUNTRIES. THE VARIOUS STUDIES WERE CONCERNED WITH TRENDS OVER TIME, PATTERNS OF CONTENT ACROSS CULTURES, AND REASONS BEHIND THESE TRENDS AND PATTERNS. INTERVIEWS WERE CONDUCTED WITH OVER 100 KNOWLEDGEABLE PERSONS IN THE MASS MEDIA FIELD AND IN EDUCATION IN THE COUNTRIES STUDIED. DOZENS OF INDEXES, ARCHIVES, AND SPECIAL COLLECTIONS OF RELEVANT DATA WERE SEARCHED. CONTENT STUDIES INCLUDED ANALYSES OF THOUSANDS OF NEWSPAPER ITEMS, FULL-LENGTH FEATURE FILMS, RADIO AND TELEVISION DRAMA PROGRAMS, POPULAR MAGAZINE STORIES, AND FICTIONAL AND DRAMATIC CHARACTERS. THE RESULTS OF THE PROGRAM WERE BROUGHT TOGETHER WITH RESPECT TO TWO ASPECTS OF THE DYNAMICS OF IMAGE-FORMATION AS FOLLOWS--(1) "CONTENT," OR THE COMPOSITION AND STRUCTURE OF A MESSAGE SYSTEM, I.E., THE WAY MASS MEDIA SYSTEMS PORTRAY TEACHERS, SCHOOLS, AND EDUCATION, AND (2) "PROCESS," OR THE INFLUENCES, RELATIONSHIPS, AND REQUIREMENTS WHICH AFFECT THE PRODUCTION OF A MESSAGE SYSTEM. THE MAJOR THEORETICAL IMPLICATIONS OF THESE STUDIES WERE RELATED TO INSTITUTIONAL DYNAMICS AFFECTING MASS CULTURAL REPRESENTATIONS OF EDUCATION IN DIFFERENT SOCIETIES. (JH)

ED002955

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION AND WELFARE
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MASS COMMUNICATIONS AND POPULAR CONCEPTIONS OF EDUCATION; A CROSS-CULTURAL STUDY

Cooperative Research Project No. 876

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1964

The research reported herein was supported by the Cooperative Research Program of the Office of Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

PREFACE AND ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

> When citizens decide on how to educate their children, everything they hold dear is brought into play; as Aristotle suggested in the Politics, if they differ on what they hold dear, they will differ on what they want from the schools. Thus conceived, education is probably the most subtle, intricate, and perplexing political problem facing the American people today.
>
> Lawrence A. Cremin in "Is the Issue 'Clearly Drawn'?" Saturday Review, March 21, 1964, p. 80.

The studies reported in this volume inquired into seminal processes of modern society. These studies comprised Phase I of a broader cross-cultural research plan submitted under the general title of "Mass Communications and Popular Conceptions of Education." The purpose of the overall plan was "to study the relevance and the contributions of certain aspects of mass-produced information and entertainment to the development of public images and conceptions about education" in the United States and in selected countries of Western and Eastern Europe. The investigation was not intended to "focus on the explicitly 'educational' functions of the media but on (1) the portrayal of teachers, teaching, and education in general content produced for mass audiences, (2) some influences (including relations with educational organizations) affecting that portrayal, and (3) relevance of that portrayal to popular conceptions about education, teaching, and learning."

Phase I dealt with the first two of the three aims. Its purpose, again in the words of the proposal, was "to find out what portrayals of teachers and teaching each national system of communications makes available for mass consumption, and what forces, pressures, controls, professional relationships affect these portrayals." In other words, how do different mass media systems represent teachers, schools, and education, and why do they represent these as they do?

Different stages and places in the writing of this report called for different formulations of the thrust and significance of this effort. Appendix I is perhaps the most comprehensive of these, written with the communications researcher in mind. The Introduction to Part I describes the stated purposes of the project, and sketches the conceptual history and overall organization of the report. Comments introducing individual chapters (especially Chapters I, IV, and VI) suggest some approaches for the educator and for the student of popular culture. Here we shall state the case in its most general form and acknowledge our considerable debt to others.

*

If education is the development of human resources, and politics is their allocation, education about education is an outcome of the allocation of human resources to human resource-development itself. This is what these studies were about. "Education" in the first instance was taken to mean the general cultural process of representing life and the world through the mass media of communications. "Education" in the second instance meant representations of the formal educational enterprise -- schooling and its personnel.

This is the sense in which these studies can be seen as inquiring into seminal processes of modern society. It has been suggested that strategies of human resource development -- including policies governing the amount and nature of re-investment in future development -- may be the most reliable indicators of social viability and national growth.* This is the sense in which, as has also been suggested, the figure of the schoolteacher may well be taken as a central symbol in any society.** And this is perhaps the deepest sense in which education, and the pervasive public representations structuring public attention and energies devoted to it, may well be "the most subtle, intricate, and perplexing _political_ problem facing the American people today."

Education, broadly conceived as the development and cultivation of human resources, was thus dealt with on the institutional level where it is most accessible to public direction and control. Institutionalized education was seen as a multiple social enterprise whose branches intertwine and affect one another in ways characteristic of a society.

Education thus conceived in its broadest sense is public acculturation. The process takes on new institutional forms at different stages of social and technological development. As new forms arise, the older forms do not disappear but become more formalized, specialized, and dependent on the general cultural transformations brought about by the new forms of relatively "informal" acculturation.

Perhaps the oldest branch of institutionalized public acculturation is what we today call religion, the cultural organization which once encompassed both statecraft and the public philosophy of the tribe or the nation. Two more recent branches of institutionalized public acculturation are offsprings of the industrial revolution. The older of these is "public education" or formal schooling for all, born of the struggle for equality of opportunity, and sustained by the demand for minimum literacy, competence, and obeisance in increasingly mobile, de-tribalized, de-traditionalized, and non-deferential societies. The newer branch of institutionalized public acculturation is mass communication, i.e. the mass-production and distribution of the most broadly shared continuous flow of messages in advanced industrial societies.

The media of mass communications are direct descendants of technology, corporate organization, mass production, and mass markets. They are cultural arms of an industrial order. Their perspectives reflect a particular stage of industrial development. In the U.S., for example, where they were established as an adjunct of an already high degree of productive development, they became generally consumer and market oriented. In the U.S.S.R., on the other hand, where they were established at a less advanced stage as agents of accelerated development, they are generally production and development oriented.

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*Cf. p. 5-1, _infra_.

**Cf. p. 6-1, _infra_.

Mass media policies reflect not only stages of industrial development and the general structure of social relations but also particular types of industrial organization and control. Corporate or collective organization, private or public control, and the priorities given to artistic, political, and economic policy considerations govern their overall operations and affect their relationships with other institutions such as formal education.

In the twentieth century, mass media became dominant creators and cultivators of publics in the political, economic, esthetic, and educational meanings of the term. The revolutionary significance of modern mass communication is in its "public-making" ability. That is the ability to cultivate vast and otherwise heterogeneous communities of perspective and meaning among people who never interact face-to-face. It is the ability to form historically new bases for collective thought and action quickly, continuously, and pervasively across previous boundaries.

Both schools and mass media create and cultivate publics on different levels of endurance and pervasiveness. But aside from the formation of publics in the collective policy-making sense of the word, both mass media and schools cultivate dominant perspectives of a society. Regardless of whether we call what they do instruction, information, entertainment, advertising, or other forms of enlightenment, persuasion, or agitation, both schooling and mass communication are institutionalized processes drilling children and adults in cultural orientations.

The primary focus of these studies has been the kind of "drill" that systems of mass communication tend to offer in representing their twin institutions, systems of formal schooling. The studies inquired into the emphases and omissions expressed and cultivated in mass-produced message systems dealing directly with teachers, schools, education in different societies. We made no assumptions about the private uses and effects of the "drill" other than that it cultivates familiarity with what it presents, patterns alternative choices and values, and establishes certain perspectives for viewing things. Some evidence collected on this general process is, however, suggestive of certain public policy effects relating to the formal educational enterprise.

To sum up: Both the policies governing mass communication and the policies governing formal education reflect the politics of human resource-allocation and development, i.e. the system of public values in a society. Policies governing mass communication about education express re-investment in future development, relate to institutional structures, and reflect relationships between an older and a newer agency of public acculturation.

*

The research itself consisted of historical, comparative, and case-study mass media content analyses, and of interviews with mass media, government, and educational personnel in ten countries. Over 100 knowledgeable and influential persons were interviewed; dozens of indexes, archives, and specialized collections of relevant data were searched; 3,327 newspaper items, 1,406 full-length feature films, broadcast drama programs, and popular magazine fiction stories, and 2,800 fictional and dramatic characters were subjected to detailed analysis; hundreds of additional films, comic strips, and other media materials were checked for trend and specific theme information. New methods and measures of message-system analysis were developed. Yet the search for some reliable answers to the broad questions asked, often followed relatively narrow paths. The quest for understanding the fundamental problems and processes involved led through partly unexplored regions of social science, and yielded sometimes incomplete, inconclusive, uneven, and fragmentary results. To pursue and develop all the leads collected, and even to account for all the insights gained, would have required time and space many times that available for this report. More information was collected than could be presented, and more was presented (in Part II) than could be adequately integrated into the discussion. Most of the quantitative analysis is devoid of the life and color characteristic of the material analyzed. Work on the fuller development of many aspects of this research should continue.

But the completion of this report is a long overdue occasion to thank the many persons and organizations whose collaboration made the basic research possible. I am pleased to acknowledge, first of all, the support of the Cooperative Research Branch of the Office of Education, and its patience with the delays which attend such a complex international undertaking. Equally important was the freedom and administrative assistance I enjoyed during the period of these studies at the Institute of Communications Research, College of Journalism and Communications, University of Illinois. Dr. Jack Schwartz, as Research Assistant during the first two years, supervised much of the analysis and data processing. Assistance for shorter periods was ably rendered by Dr. Howard Bobren, Mrs. Thelma Chalmers, Mrs. Marjorie Collens, Mrs. Julia Demmin, Dr. Thomas Guback, and Mr. Wendell Shackelford. Special analyses were conducted by Dr. Francis E. Barcus, Mrs. Dorothy Jones, Mrs. Julia Lord, and Mrs. Louann Roussel (who also gave secretarial assistance). Credit for most of the typing, production, and coordination of the report goes to Mrs. Linda Shackelford.

The cooperation of more than a dozen organizations and nearly a hundred analysts, research coordinators, and supervisors in nine countries made the overseas parts of this project possible. The organizations are listed in Appendix I-4 and I-5. The persons, too numerous to list, will appear as authors, co-authors, or assistants on a number of special reports and publications emanating from this project.

To the many busy people in ten countries who took time to talk and write about their work in response to our questions, who gave material, access to records, and leads to other sources of information, and who must remain anonymous according to the ground rules set for this research -- thanks.

As investigator in charge of the design and execution of all aspects of the research, writing, instrumentation, tabulation, and interpretation, only I am responsible for the ways -- all glaringly apparent to me -- in which this report falls short of its ambitious aims. The effort is by no means over. But it could never have gotten this far without the love, patience, support, and encouragement of my wife, Ilona.

George Gerbner

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PART I

INTRODUCTION

How do mass media systems portray teachers, schools, and education? What are some influences affecting such portrayals? A series of studies inquired into these questions. Some looked for trends over time, others for patterns of content across cultures, and still others for reasons behind these patterns. Some were case studies, others dealt with a range of relevant portrayals on a comparative basis. Some inquired into news, others into drama and fiction. This is a report of these studies, varying in focus, depth, scope, and method, and held together only by their relevance to the central questions.

Problem, objectives, procedures

Social change at home and the challenge of developments abroad subject national systems of education to unusual stress. Much study is necessarily devoted to assessing educational responsibilities in the light of new concerns and (often conflicting) public demands. But relatively little is known of the popular cultural images and processes which help shape the kind of educational effort a nation will accept and support. The purpose of this research was to collect some information about these images and processes, and make some contribution to the historical and cross-cultural perspectives necessary for their understanding.

The following specific questions were asked:

1. What are some dominant configurations of images in the portrayal of teachers and teaching in mass media content (popular broadcasts, motion pictures, the press, and other publications) produced for general mass audiences? What are major trends in these configurations? What are some comparative characteristics of these configurations in different national cultures and systems?
2. What influences and decision-making processes shape the configurations of portrayals in different media systems? How do artistic and business assumptions, philosophical and political orientations, technical, market, and institutional relationships and requirements affect the portrayals?

The research thus consisted of historical and comparative analyses and case studies of mass media content, and of interviews with mass media and other personnel influencing or knowledgeable about mass media content. Countries included in the studies were the United States, Great Britain, France, Austria, West Germany, East Germany, Poland, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, and the Soviet Union. Types of studies conducted in each country are noted in Appendix I, pp. I-4 and I-5.

Emphasis was on the American scene in an historical and cross-cultural perspective. Two graduate theses (Schwartz, 1963; Brown, 1963)* and several published articles (Schwartz, 1960; Gerbner, 1962A, 1963A, 1963B, 1964A and 1964B) have been based partly or wholly upon materials collected in connection with this project. Articles, monographs, and other publications dealing with individual countries and other aspects of this research are in preparation. Relevant research and literature is discussed as appropriate to each study and is listed in the Bibliography.

In grappling with the substantive problem of this research, it became necessary to develop theoretical formulations and analytical methods. The results of the research are, therefore, analytical and methodological as well as substantive. Part I of this report summarizes the major substantive results and their implications for education and for the mass media. Part II contains a series of Appendixes beginning with a general account of the project and its implications for communications research. The other Appendixes of Part II give all content analysis data and discuss procedure and methodology pertinent to each content study. For information on the research theoretical, procedural, and methodological aspects of the studies, the reader is referred to Part II.

How to read this report

The report of a lengthy and complex research project unwittingly records the conceptual history of its own creation. It might help the reader to make this history more explicit.

As the analysis of mass media content and interview data progressed, it became clear that there were few theories available to lend significance to the observations and to derive support from them. The lack of both theoretical and methodological equipment adequate to the tasks made it necessary to construct elements of a framework of theory and method in the comparative analysis of mass media message systems. In other words, before we could discuss the ways in which mass media of several countries viewed and presented the educational enterprise, we felt compelled to structure and develop an area of communications research relevant to that task. The project's contributions to theory and method in communications research appear in Part II. Part II contains two series of Appendixes. It was completed before work on Part I began and contains much material which could not be adequately summarized within the scope of Part I. Such material was included to make it available to those interested in broader aspects and methods of message-system analysis.

Such readers should begin with Appendix I which presents the purposes, history, and theory of the research. Appendix I approaches the portrayal of education primarily as a means for the exploration of mass-cultural operations and for the analysis of the patterning and weighting of mass media message systems.* Following this general introduction, the methodologically oriented reader might go on to the description of the comparative press studies in Appendix II-C, and to the accounts of "topic analysis" and "proposition analysis" (procedures developed for this research) in Appendixes II-D and II-E. Appendixes III, IV, and V present the methods and findings of the analyses of mass media fiction and drama, including newly developed measures of thematic composition and structure (Appendix IV-B), absolute and relative "personality profiles" (Appendix IV-C), character interrelations (Appendix IV-D), and dramatic action analysis (Appendix IV-E). Appendixes V-A and V-B focus more directly on fictional and dramatic presentations of school programs and of teachers and students in the different national media systems. Appendix VI presents the instruments of the content analysis.

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*All text references can be located in the Bibliography at the end of Part I. Footnote references pertain only to the passage under discussion and are not repeated in the Bibliography.

Part I is relatively free of detailed accounts of research theory and methodology, although frequent reference is made to the Appendixes on which the discussion is based. Limitations of time and space precluded the discussion of informal experiences, specific works, and many personal insights derived from the field studies. In fact, some studies conducted in the framework of this research could not be included at all, and others included in Part II could not be systematically summarized in Part I without further extending its length and scope. The reader interested only or mainly in the descriptive and interpretative account of mass-cultural treatments of education in different countries may proceed with Part I, and refer to supporting material in Part II as needed.

Chapter I presents findings of trends in the frequency and proportion of attention devoted to schools and education in American mass media, and concludes with an attempt to place these trends in an historical perspective. Chapter II begins a series of probes into the structure and process of information and the nature of institutional relationships between education and the press. An informal survey of education reporting on large American papers (Chapter II) is followed by a case study of the press coverage of a national education convention (Chapter III). The comparative dimension is introduced in Chapter IV which presents observations and interviews on school-press relations in Great Britain, France, and the Soviet Union. Chapter V concludes the press analyses with findings of case studies and a comparative analysis of newspaper content including all countries involved in this research. Chapter VI summarizes the comparative studies of mass media fiction and drama. Chapter VII pulls together the conclusions and implications of the studies summarized in this report.

Methods and limitations of each study are noted in the appropriate chapters and Appendixes. All that might be said here is that while this report fulfills more than the formal obligations assumed in undertaking the research, it is still only a report of limited probes into broad and complex problems. It should be read, therefore, as an account of progress toward a destination still to be reached.

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*As the theoretical and methodological development was not the primary objective of the research, literature relevant to these tasks was cited only when a measure or instrument was based on existing models.

CHAPTER I

SOME TRENDS IN U.S. MASS MEDIA

> There are clear and obvious connections between the quality of a culture and the quality of its system of education. In our own time we have settled to saying that the improvement of our culture is a matter of improving and extending our national education, and in one sense this is obviously true. Yet we speak sometimes as if education were a fixed abstraction, a settled body of teaching and learning . . . To conduct this business as if it were the distribution of a simple product is wholly misleading . . . The way in which education is organized can be seen to express, consciously and unconsciously, the wider organization of a culture and a society . . . what is thought of as 'education' being in fact a particular set of emphases and omissions. Further, when this selection of content is examined more closely, it will be seen to be one of the decisive factors affecting its distribution: the cultural choices involved in the selection of content have an organic relation to the social choices involved in the practical organization. If we are to discuss education adequately, we must examine, in historical and analytical terms, this organic relation, for to be conscious of a choice made is to be conscious of further and alternative choices available, and at a time when changes, under a multitude of pressures, will in any case occur, this degree of consciousness is vital.
>
> Raymond Williams in The Long Revolution, pp. 125-126.

There may be "clear and obvious connections" between popular culture and a system of education, but these connections are by no means simple. In a sense, education as "a particular set of emphases and omissions" is part of popular culture which, in turn, can be defined as the most broadly shared sets of "emphases and omissions," cultivated in modern societies largely through mass-produced and widely distributed message systems.

These studies inquired into sets of "emphases and omissions" expressed and cultivated in mass-produced message systems which deal directly with education. In so doing, the studies also sought to illuminate some institutional relationships between the mass media of communications which produce these message systems, and the educational enterprise reflected in and affected by them.

The influence is, of course, reciprocal. Furthermore, mass communications and education are cultural operations of the same society, subject to some of the same trends and decision-making processes governing the overall allocation of social resources. But it is also clear that the mass media as industrial organizations in the cultural field have a stake in the allocation of resources which need not be always identical with that of the educational institution. To the extent that there is an at least partial divergence of institutional interests and purposes, the "emphases and omissions" in the media's representations of the educational enterprise -- and thus the quality of culture in which education operates -- could be expected to reflect such divergence, and to affect educational development both through the selection of educational images to be cultivated and through the influence on resource allocation itself.

The immediate purpose of this chapter is to summarize trends in the amount (and in certain instances kind) of attention devoted to schools, teachers, and education in American print and motion picture media. We did not study education as such, and we make no claim that the portrayal of educational subjects has a decisive bearing on education itself. However, trends in the amount and kind of attention mass media devote to education may be highly indicative of the nature of cultural and institutional relationships involved. These trends may also suggest some relationships between the allocation of public attention and of public resources, and the media's role in both.

There have been many investigations of the treatment of education and related subjects in the mass media. (The bibliography at the end of Part I lists most of these studies.) But no research was found dealing with recent and relatively long-term trends in media attention in a sufficiently systematic and detailed way to make comparisons possible between several measures, several media, and several different manifestations of basic social and cultural policies.

The studies which follow attempted to provide such information. The information could not be presented in a full historical context within the scope of this report. But the account of the findings, and the tabulations contained in Appendix II-A, might serve to establish certain gross and mostly quantitative directions of analysis in the cultural history of American education, and in the study of the dynamics of mass media representations.

The findings serve the specific purposes of this study in certain limited ways. A brief discussion of book publishing trends in educational subjects will be followed by a more detailed analysis of trends in news coverage in the New York Times, both over an approximately 50-year period. Studies in the allocation of attention to educational subjects since 1900 in popular magazines have employed several different bases and measures in order to provide independent confirmations of trend data. The circulation and frequency of relevant material published by individual leading popular magazines were also established, and measures of non-advertising space devoted to education since 1938 were taken. A special study of magazine covers completes the section on popular magazines.

Some trends in the production of feature movies dealing with teachers, schools, and educational subjects provide information about the type and number of films and of major roles, about the level and type of education portrayed, and about certain thematic characteristics of relevant films for a 30-year period. A brief note on comics concludes the findings presented in this chapter.

At the end of each section, and in the concluding portion of this chapter, certain major features and cumulative implications of the findings will be discussed in the light of other related research. We shall in conclusion also advance some considerations relevant to the allocation of material and cultural resources, and thus to an historical approach to institutional analysis in industrial culture.

Book publishing

American book readers in the twentieth century had an annual average of about 10,000 privately published new books to choose from. A little over 300 of these, or an annual average of 2.5 percent, were books about education. (Definitions and figures are those of Publishers' Weekly, also used in U.S. government statistics. Textbooks are not included. See sources and tabulation in Appendix II-A-1, Table 1.)

From 1910 to 1960, the total number of new titles published increased by about one-third. In the same period, the number of books about education, and their percentage share of the total, declined. The system of classification was changed in 1961, and figures after that date are not strictly comparable with pre-1961 figures. However, they indicate a rise in the number and percentage share of books about education.

The significance of trends in U.S. book publishing might be illuminated by comparison with similar data from Great Britain. According to the American Library & Book Trade Annual (Wyllis E. Wright, ed. New York: R. R. Bowker Co., 1960), statistics gathered by the London Bookseller "are on a comparable basis to those gathered by Publishers' Weekly of the U.S.A., except for the inclusion of government publications from Her Majesty's Stationery Office." Because of that difference, the actual number of books included in Great Britain is much higher than in the U.S. where government statistics include only books published by private publishers. The difference might partially account also for the fact that the percentage of British books about education averages three times the U.S. percentage. For example, the year 1955 offers a sharp contrast. U.S. book production was set at 12,589 titles, and books about education at 274 titles, or 2.2 percent of the total. British book production was reported as 19,962 titles, and books about education 1,844 titles, or 9.2 percent of the total.

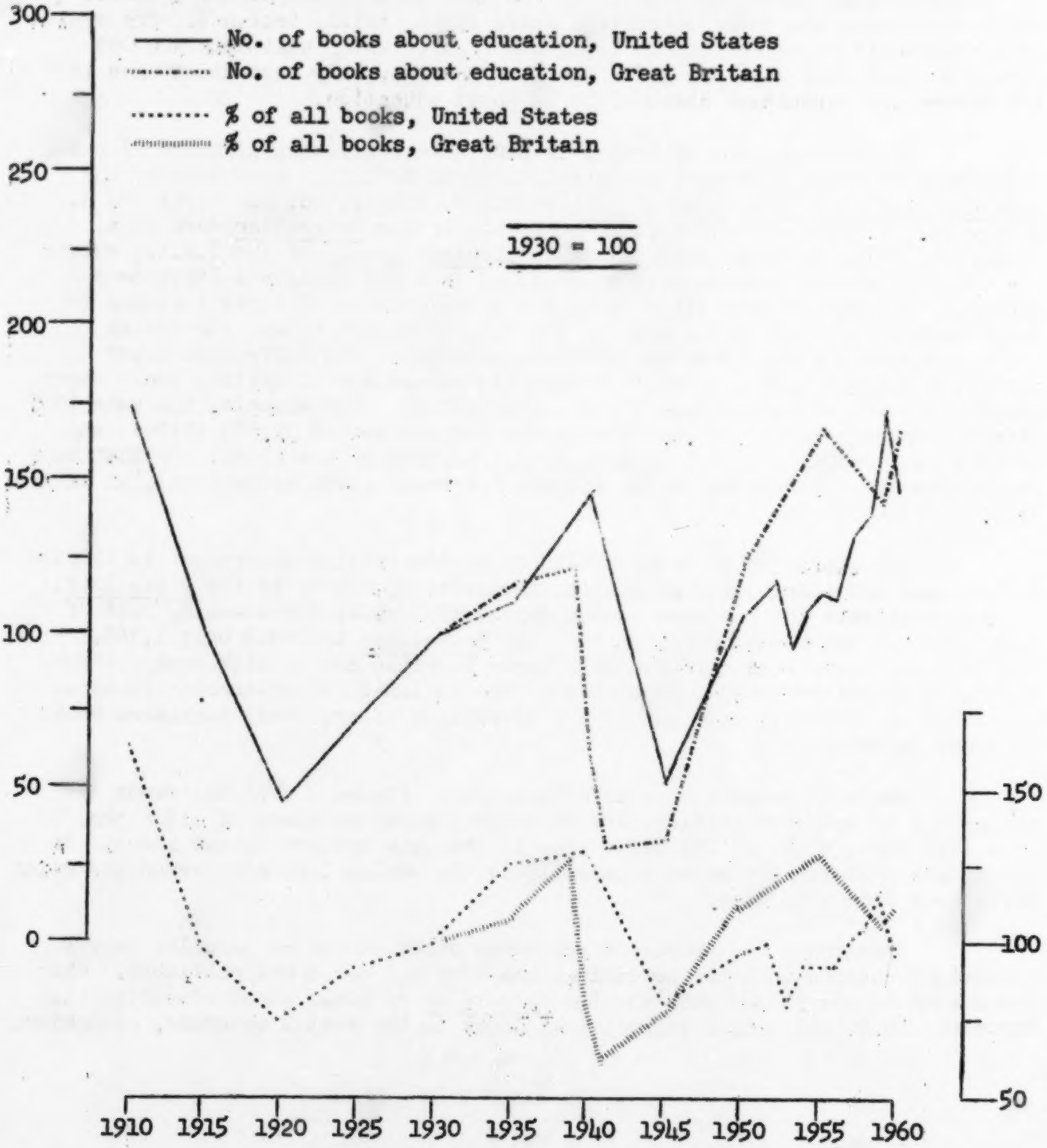
The inclusion of books published by the British government is limited to the more important works of general interest, according to the Bookseller. Figures available for the year ending April, 1954 show, for example, that of 6,039 British government publications, the Bookseller included only 1,365. It may well be, then, that differences between American and British book publishing about education are not due solely to the inclusion of government publications but also to a greater number and proportion of privately published books in Great Britain.

Our main concern here is with trends. Figure 1 plots trends in the number of education titles, and in their percentage share of all books, from 1910 through 1960. The difference in absolute numbers is not shown. On all graphs 1930 was chosen as a base (100); the scales indicate percentage point deviations from that base.

Changes in the number of new books about education parallel fairly accurately changes in their percentage share of all new books published. When the number of new titles goes up, the proportion of books about education also expands. (U.S. statistics suggest that books in the social sciences, economics, law, poetry, and drama also tend to fall in this category.) Conversely, when book publishing slumps, publishers cut back in the proportion of new books about education. (The opposite tendency appears to be true for fiction, biography, and business subjects; these tend to gain the share lost by the others.)

FIGURE 1

TRENDS IN NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF NEW BOOKS ABOUT EDUCATION (EXCLUDING TEXTBOOKS) PUBLISHED ANNUALLY IN UNITED STATES AND GREAT BRITAIN FROM 1910 TO 1960



Wartime shortages in paper and printing services restricted the publication of new titles in both countries. There was a corresponding decline in the proportion of books about education. The postwar upswing was first interrupted in the United States. The 5-year periods probably hide the nature of the leveling-off (or dip) in the U.S. in the mid-thirties. No such leveling-off was apparent in England. The differences in the early fifties, for which annual U.S. data were available, are more apparent. While U.S. titles plunged to a peacetime low percentage in 1953, British titles reached an all-time high. Then, after minor reversals, both resumed an upward climb.

*

While these data and comparisons are not sufficient for far-reaching conclusions, they point to certain trends also characteristic of other media. Most noteworthy, aside from the overall low level of U.S. trade book publishing on educational subjects, are the sharp postwar increases in the relative allocation of attention, the abrupt interruption of this trend especially in the early fifties (and the absence of such interruption in Great Britain at that time), and the apparent high point of attention in the U.S. (but not in Britain) in the late fifties.

Many other elements of publishing and of cultural history would have to be explored before we could place this information in the proper context. The specific content and nature of the more recent waves of attention has been described in accounts bearing such suggestive titles as The Great Debate: Our Schools in Crisis (edited by C. W. Scott, C. M. Hill, and H. W. Burns, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1959) and The Ax-Grinders (by M. A. Raywid, N.Y.: Macmillan, 1962). The fiction of the times might also provide a clue.

Fiction

Estimates of critics and scholars suggest that fiction books with educators as major characters or education as an important theme or setting have also been relatively rare, at least until recently.

"The major American novelists," wrote Lyons (1962)"have avoided the Academy. Part of the reason may be that their British mentors were not associated with the universities and wisely avoided writing about things they did not know." Historically, noted Lyons, the novel's audience "is romantic and it does not want cloistered excitement. It is an audience which has perhaps Protestant suspicion of the monastic nature of the Academy, and a middle-class anti-intellectual impatience with intellectual drama." "Curiously," he commented, the "most serious type of novel of academic life is basically anti-intellectual."

Belok (1958) could only find about 200 American novels since 1900 in which college professors appeared as characters. By the late fifties, however, Widmer (1960) complained that the "novel of academic life threatens to become yet another of those self-perpetuating sub-genres of the American narrative in search of significant society." And in 1963, Charles Shapiro, pointing to the entry of writers into the universities, wrote in the Saturday Review (October 19, 1963, p. 37):

> Karl Miller, in a recent issue of the English periodical New Statesman, reported to his countrymen that in America the college novel "is now a cottage industry." And so it seems, as book after book assaults us with tales of assorted hypocrisies committed under the name of higher education.

The New York Times

The New York Times Index was used to obtain a measure of press attention over a period of nearly 50 years in that newspaper. Appendix II-A-2, Table 2 contains the findings, based on the number and percentage of columns occupied by the listing of stories in the Index. Three main headings were searched: "Schools" (including listings under New York City and State and "High Schools" and "Colleges and Universities," but not listings under other geographical subdivisions or the names of individual schools), "Education," and "Teachers."

General trends

Both the number and the proportion of relevant items indexed increased more than ten-fold during the 50-year period. Even so, the percentage share of relevant listings out of all items indexed exceeded 3 percent only in 1958 and 1961.

However, two considerations should be taken into account in interpreting these trends and figures. First, the overall increase in listings under the selected headings probably overestimates the actual increase in the number of items published in the Times. In the earlier period, many stories were listed under geographic headings other than New York City or State, and under the names of individual schools and colleges, and were, therefore, not included in our tabulations. The tendency in the policy of indexing has been away from geographic and other fragmented listings toward grouping items under subject matter headings. This tended to magnify the actual increase as measured by listings under these subject matter headings.

Secondly, the method of measurement employed here probably underestimates the amount of space devoted to education. For example, Deutschmann (1959) found that education stories occupied 4.8 percent and editorials 1.7 percent of total non-advertising space in the Times in March, 1959. Our measure shows 2.57 percent of all listings for the year 1959.

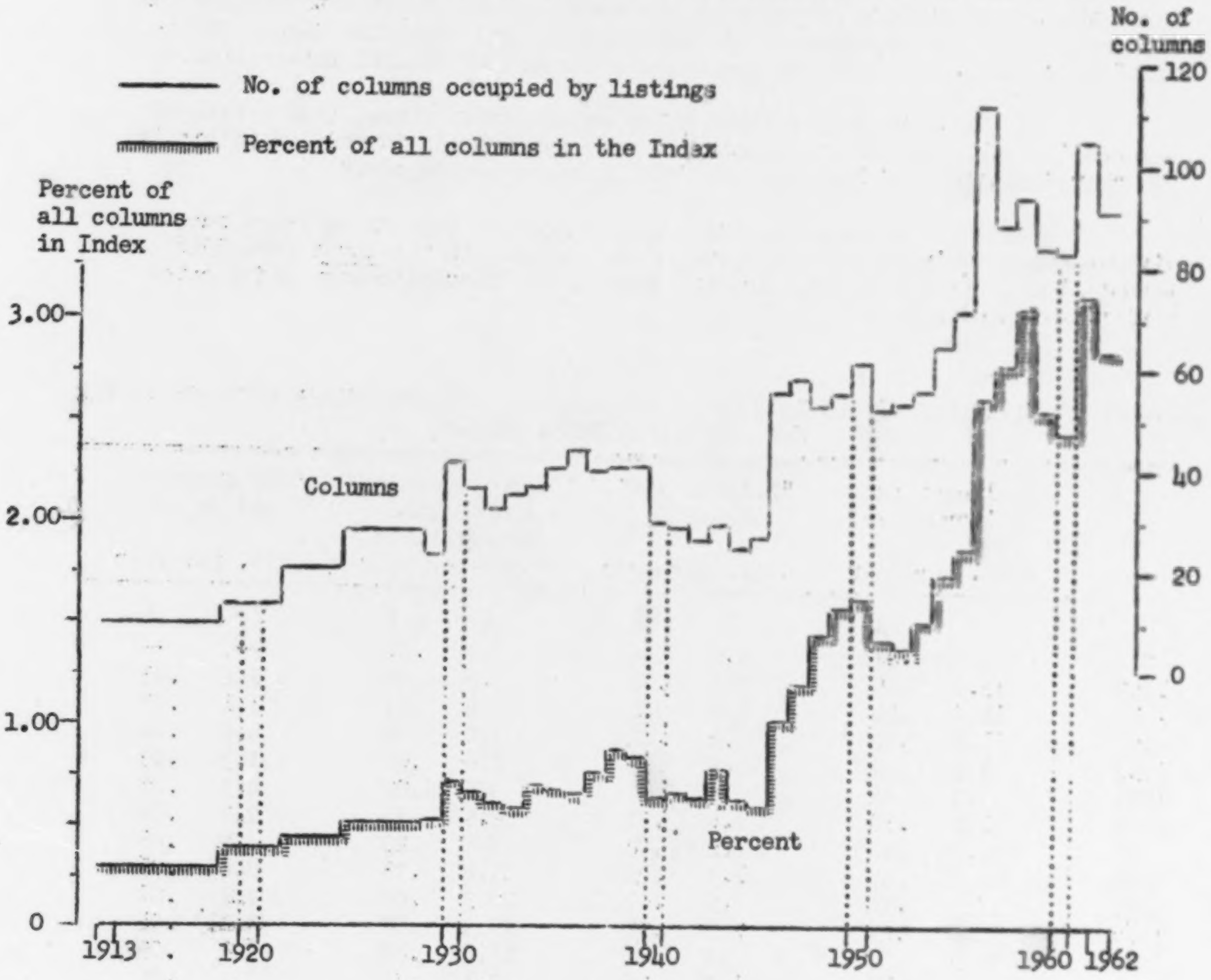
These considerations suggest that the major significance of measurements based on Index listings is in their indication of relative tendencies and shifts in the composition of attention rather than in showing the amount of overall increase in numbers of items, the proportion of items, or in the amount of space devoted to our subjects.

With these cautions in mind, we shall first look at trends in the total number and proportion of listings under all subject headings included in the tabulations. Figure 2 presents these trends. The top line shows the number of Index columns occupied by all relevant listings. The lower (shaded) line represents the percentage share of these listings out of the total number of columns devoted to all items in the Index. (It should be noted that the two graphs are not on the same scale.)

The steady increase in attention after World War I culminated in the spurt of 1930. In the thirties, the decline in the proportion of attention was more prolonged than it was in the amount. After the slump of World War II, both rose sharply to a peak in 1950. The dip of the early fifties turned to new heights in the number of stories by 1956, and in their percentage share by 1958.

FIGURE 2

LISTINGS UNDER "TEACHERS," "SCHOOLS," AND "EDUCATION" HEADINGS IN THE NEW YORK TIMES INDEX 1913-1962; NO. OF COLUMNS AND PERCENT OF TOTAL INDEX



Composition of attention

The gross composition of these trends in the broad categories of the Index is shown in Appendix II-A-2, Table 2. The Appendix table gives the number of columns devoted to listings under "Schools," "Education," and "Teachers" headings, and their percentage of all Index listings from 1913 through 1962. As we examine these trends, we shall introduce two supplementary tabulations. These deal with major subdivisions under the three principal headings, and with the relative allocation of attention within all relevant headings.

The major change in indexing came about after World War II. In 1948 the Index changed format and sharply increased the number of listings under topical (rather than geographical or other) headings. The "Colleges and Universities" heading (which has existed from the beginning and was included in our "Schools" columns) nearly doubled its previous highest percentage of all listings, and quadrupled its previous average percentage. Under the "Education" heading, two major subdivisions were introduced in the same year. One was "Federal Aid." The other was "Negro Education." An examination of listings under the latter heading showed that the vast majority dealt with demands for integration and for improvement of facilities rather than with "Negro Education" in general. In 1957 the heading was changed to "Racial Integration."

In 1949, the year following the major format change (and a rash of teachers' strikes across the country) a main subdivision introduced within the "Teachers" category of listings was "Pay Standard and Supply."

Table 1 below gives the annual number of columns in these subdivisions and their percentage share of all columns in the Index from 1948 through 1962. (These figures are included in the tabulations by major categories in Appendix II-A-2, Table 2.)

TABLE 1

MAJOR SUBDIVISIONS WITHIN "SCHOOLS," "EDUCATION," AND "TEACHERS" LISTINGS IN THE NEW YORK TIMES INDEX 1948-62

Years	"Colleges and Universities" Cols. per year		"Federal Aid" Cols. per year		"Negro Education" and "Racial Integration" Cols. per year		"Pay Standard and Supply" Cols. per year	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1948	14.8	.41	1.5	.04	.5	.01	—	—
1949	15.8	.45	3.1	.09	.6	.02	1.2	.03
1950	16.7	.44	1.6	.04	.4	.01	1.1	.03
1951	11.6	.32	.4	.01	1.0	.03	1.6	.04
1952	11.3	.29	.7	.02	1.8	.05	1.3	.03
1953	13.3	.36	.4	.01	2.0	.05	2.3	.06
1954	11.2	.30	.4	.01	12.5	.34	1.8	.05
1955	14.3	.38	1.5	.04	8.8	.23	1.9	.05
1956	26.1	.61	1.3	.03	31.4	.73	2.0	.05
1957	17.9	.56	.5	.02	26.3	.83	2.2	.07
1958	14.5	.47	2.6	.08	29.7	.97	1.1	.04
1959	16.3	.50	.8	.02	15.6	.48	1.5	.05
1960	19.4	.57	1.9	.06	12.4	.36	2.2	.06
1961	22.0	.65	8.8	.26	10.6	.31	2.4	.07
1962	28.0	.88	3.7	.12	13.7	.43	5.9	.18

Figure 3 illustrates both the overall magnitude and the relative composition of trends in all categories of listings. All graphs present only percentages of relevant listings out of all listings in the Index.

Looking at the main headings only, we can see that "Schools" contain the bulk of the listings until 1939. A change in classification that year made most of these listings appear under "Education" from then on, still accounting for the bulk of the total. It is also apparent that beginning with 1954, and especially after 1956, the increase in attention in the late fifties was almost entirely due to integration news, and, to a much lesser extent (and only in 1961) to news about federal aid to education. Without these categories the total proportion of listings would not have surpassed the 1956 level.

Relative shifts in the allocation of attention can now be examined in another way. Table 2 traces the percentage share of listings devoted to each of the headings. All relevant listings (rather than all listings contained in the Index, as before) add up to 100 percent. Figure 4 presents the same information graphically.

The complex patterns presented in these data require a more exhaustive and detailed analysis than could be attempted here. We shall only make a few observations concerning the pattern of listings under "Teachers."

Immediately after World War I, when the frequency of relevant items jumped from .29 to .39 percent of all listings, the percentage of listings under "Teachers" trebled. Then it suddenly declined almost to its wartime level. The percentage increased again after 1925, but it did not surpass the 1919-21 level until 1934. During that period, however, the total amount of relevant material rose to a peak in 1930, and then dropped. In the early thirties, therefore, the percentage of items on teachers increased while the total amount and proportion of news about other aspects of education fell. In the late thirties, however, both trends rose together.

Teachers captured their largest share of attention devoted to educational subjects in 1938 and in 1947. After that, their share of attention declined (and the frequency of listings did not increase) despite great spurts in overall attention.

The general dip of attention in the early fifties was not paralleled by a decline in teachers' share of that attention. On the contrary, the percentage of listings under "Teachers" (including "Pay Standard and Supply") rose as the amount of attention fell, and declined (e.g. in 1958 and 1961) as the overall amount of attention rose.

These patterns suggest that different aspects of education play different roles in the composition of attention at different times. For example, news about teachers and their activities ran counter to the general trend of education news in the early thirties, but contributed significantly to that trend in the late thirties. An inverse relationship was most characteristic of the fifties; then the rise of news about integration rather than about teachers was a major factor in the increase.

FIGURE 3

LISTINGS UNDER "TEACHERS," "SCHOOLS," AND "EDUCATION" HEADINGS AND SELECTED SUBDIVISIONS AS PERCENT OF ALL ITEMS LISTED IN THE NEW YORK TIMES INDEX 1913-1962

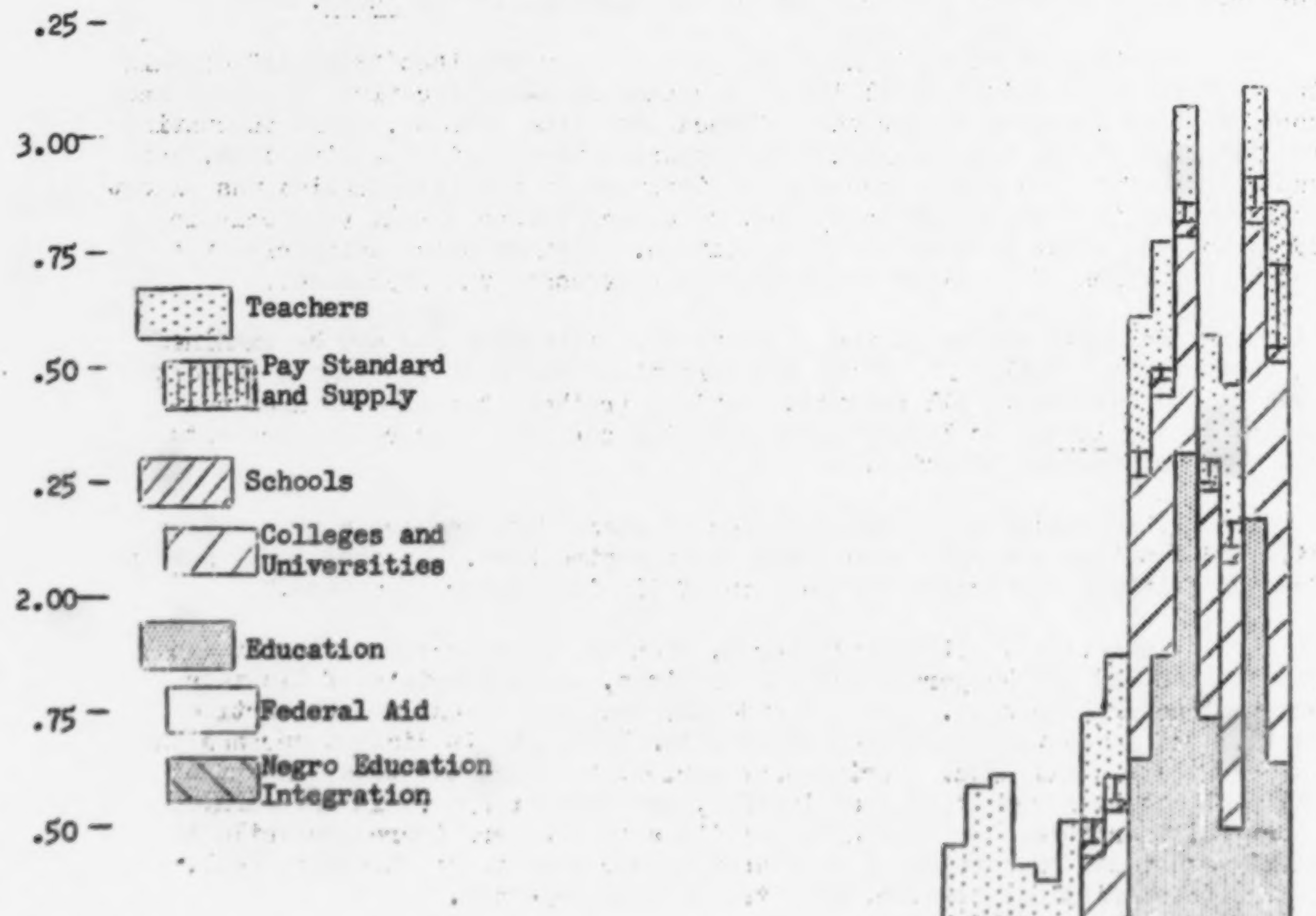


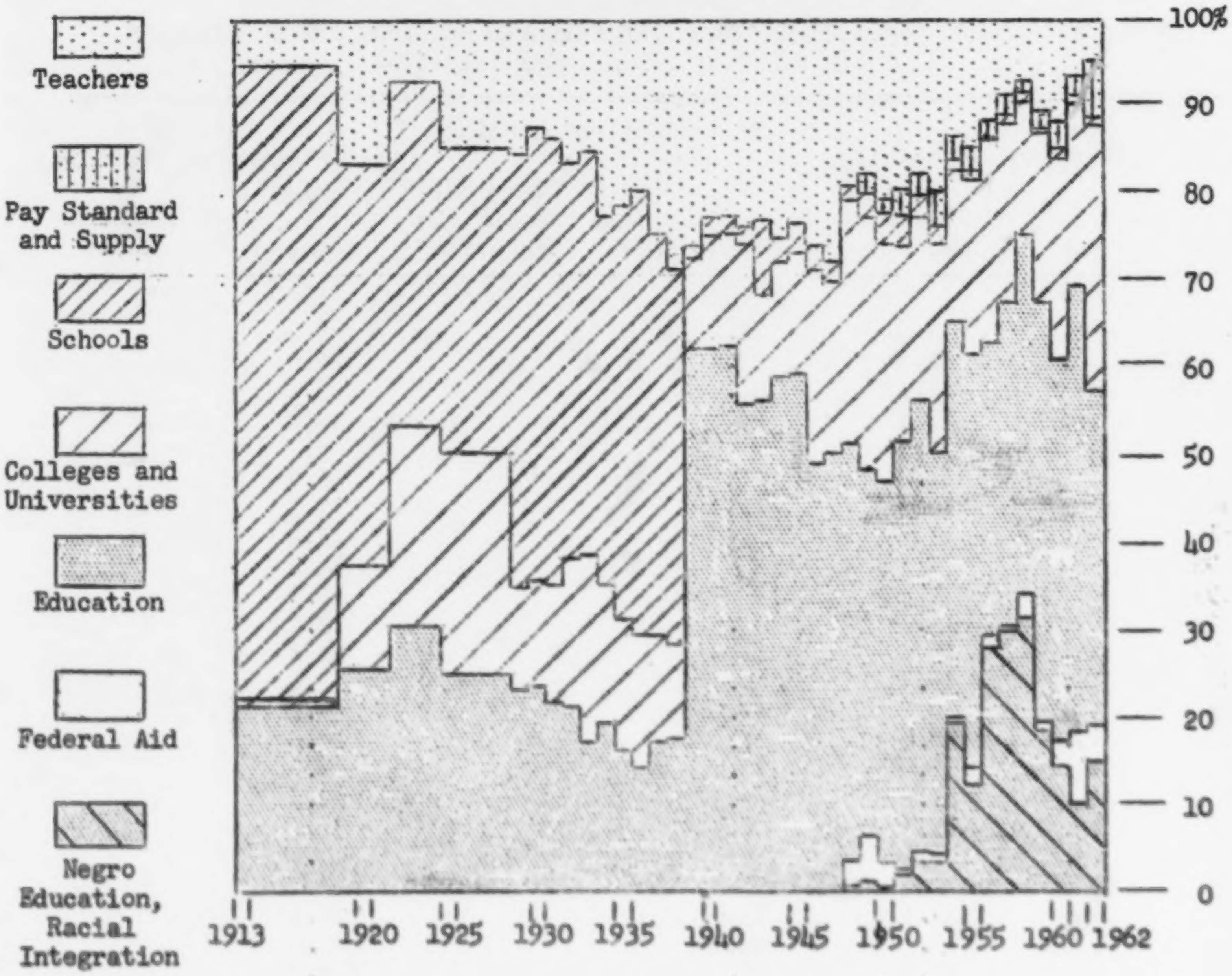
TABLE 2

PERCENTAGE SHARE OF LISTINGS UNDER THE SELECTED HEADINGS AND SUBHEADINGS OF THE NEW YORK TIMES INDEX 1913-1962

Year	All "Schools" headings		All "Education" headings			All "Teachers" headings	
	Total	"Colleges and Universities"	Total	"Federal Aid"	"Negro Ed.," "Racial Integration"	Total	"Pay Standards and Supply"
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
1913-18	73.7	1.0	21.2			5.1	
1919-21	58.2	12.1	25.5			16.3	
1922-24	62.2	23.0	30.6			7.2	
1925-28	60.2	25.4	25.0			14.8	
1929	61.6	11.8	23.2			15.2	
1930	64.1	12.3	23.6			12.3	
1931	64.8	13.7	21.9			13.4	
1932	62.7	17.1	21.1			16.2	
1933	67.8	21.5	17.2			15.0	
1934	57.4	15.6	19.9			22.6	
1935	62.5	15.0	16.2			21.3	
1936	65.9	15.1	14.7			19.4	
1937	58.5	12.7	17.2			24.4	
1938	53.8	10.4	17.8			28.4	
1939	11.8	10.6	62.2			26.0	
1940	14.9	12.9	62.3			22.8	
1941	14.8	13.1	62.5			22.7	
1942	21.2	19.3	54.9			23.9	
1943	20.6	12.2	56.4			23.0	
1944	15.9	13.1	59.0			25.1	
1945	17.3	13.7	59.4			23.2	
1946	25.0	22.3	49.0			25.9	
1947	21.1	19.9	50.2			28.7	
1948	29.5	27.8	51.5	2.8	.9	19.0	
1949	31.5	28.7	48.5	5.6	1.1	20.0	2.2
1950	30.7	27.1	47.1	2.6	.6	22.2	1.8
1951	25.8	22.3	51.7	.8	1.9	22.5	3.1
1952	23.6	21.0	56.2	1.3	3.4	20.1	2.4
1953	25.6	23.8	50.5	.7	3.6	23.8	4.1
1954	18.7	17.3	65.3	.6	19.3	16.0	2.8
1955	21.1	20.0	61.7	2.1	12.3	17.2	2.7
1956	23.8	23.3	62.9	1.2	28.0	13.4	1.8
1957	21.5	20.2	67.8	.6	29.8	10.9	2.5
1958	16.3	15.3	75.5	2.7	31.4	8.2	1.2
1959	20.0	19.4	67.7	1.0	18.5	12.4	1.8
1960	24.7	23.2	60.9	2.3	14.8	14.3	2.6
1961	21.8	21.0	69.6	8.4	10.1	8.6	2.3
1962	31.8	30.7	57.2	4.1	15.0	11.1	6.5

FIGURE 4

TRENDS IN ATTENTION DEVOTED TO SELECTED SUBJECTS WITHIN EDUCATION EXPRESSED AS PERCENTS OF ALL LISTINGS UNDER "TEACHERS," "SCHOOLS," AND "EDUCATION" IN THE NEW YORK TIMES INDEX 1913-1962



It should be pointed out again that the number of items does not necessarily indicate amount of space or emphasis given to news. The full significance of the findings of this study could be assessed only in the context of those other measures, and of a more detailed and specific examination of content than was possible in the present framework.

Independent confirmation of early Times trends comes from Beecher's (1925) study of Times education stories from 1913 to 1923. Beecher also compared the overall attention given to education (including school sports), society news, and professional sports. He found professional sports leading with 42 percent. Society news received 32 percent, and education news 26 percent of the total in these three categories.

There are some similarities between overall trends in attention in book publishing, discussed in the previous section, and the Times' news coverage. Increase in attention after World War I was uninterrupted in both media until the early thirties. At the height of the depression, the total number of new books declined while the number of education titles did not, resulting in a proportionate increase. At the same time, however, the proportion of news items devoted to education, etc. in the Times declined. Relative attention rose to a pre-World War II peak in both media in the late thirties.

Beginning with the slump of World War II, the two trends are similar: postwar rise checked by one decline in the early fifties and another after the post-Sputnik peak of 1958-59.

Other studies including a historical dimension of analysis, but no special relevance to the findings reported here, include those of Beecher (1925), Stabley (1941), Bachelder (1938), Butler (1925), and Fleming (1954, 1955, 1960).

Magazines

Trends in popular magazine attention were measured in a number of different ways. One source of information was the listing of articles under selected subject headings in the Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature. Measurements of non-advertising space devoted to education subjects since 1938 were obtained from the Lloyd H. Hall Co. of New York, publishers of Editorial Research Reports. An indication of the appeal of education and educators as magazine cover subjects was gleaned from a study of the covers of Life magazine.

Descriptions of these studies, and tabulations resulting from them, are contained in Appendix II-A, Tables 3 to 8. Here we shall summarize and illustrate some findings.

Trends in Reader's Guide listings

Figures 5, 6 and 7 present trends in the average number of articles per magazine appearing in mass circulation magazines (defined in Appendix II-A-3, footnote 1) and indexed in the Reader's Guide from 1900 through 1962.

The general pattern of the combined data (Figure 6) is similar to that of the New York Times listings except for the early years (which, as we have noted, are underrepresented in the Times Index subject categories). The most characteristic feature of the pattern is the low level of attention during the war, and the slumps in the thirties and early fifties.

A comparison of trends shows that the number of articles on teachers and teaching was highest immediately after World Wars I and II, and in the mid-fifties. During the thirties, the number of articles dealing with teachers remained fairly low while the total number of educational articles rose.

The postwar periods were also the times when a large number of articles dealt with teachers' salaries, unions, and professional problems.

The number of articles dealing with teacher education and methods generally increased in the fifties. The number of popular magazine articles on educational methods and experimentation was greatest before World War II.

The findings illustrated on Figure 7 also suggest that theories and goals of education were most frequently discussed in the early thirties and the late forties. Popular magazine interest in foreign education was high before World War I, revived during the upsurge of general attention after World War II, and again after the mid-fifties.

FIGURE 5

MASS CIRCULATION MAGAZINE ARTICLES LISTED IN THE READER'S GUIDE UNDER "TEACH-" SUBJECT HEADINGS

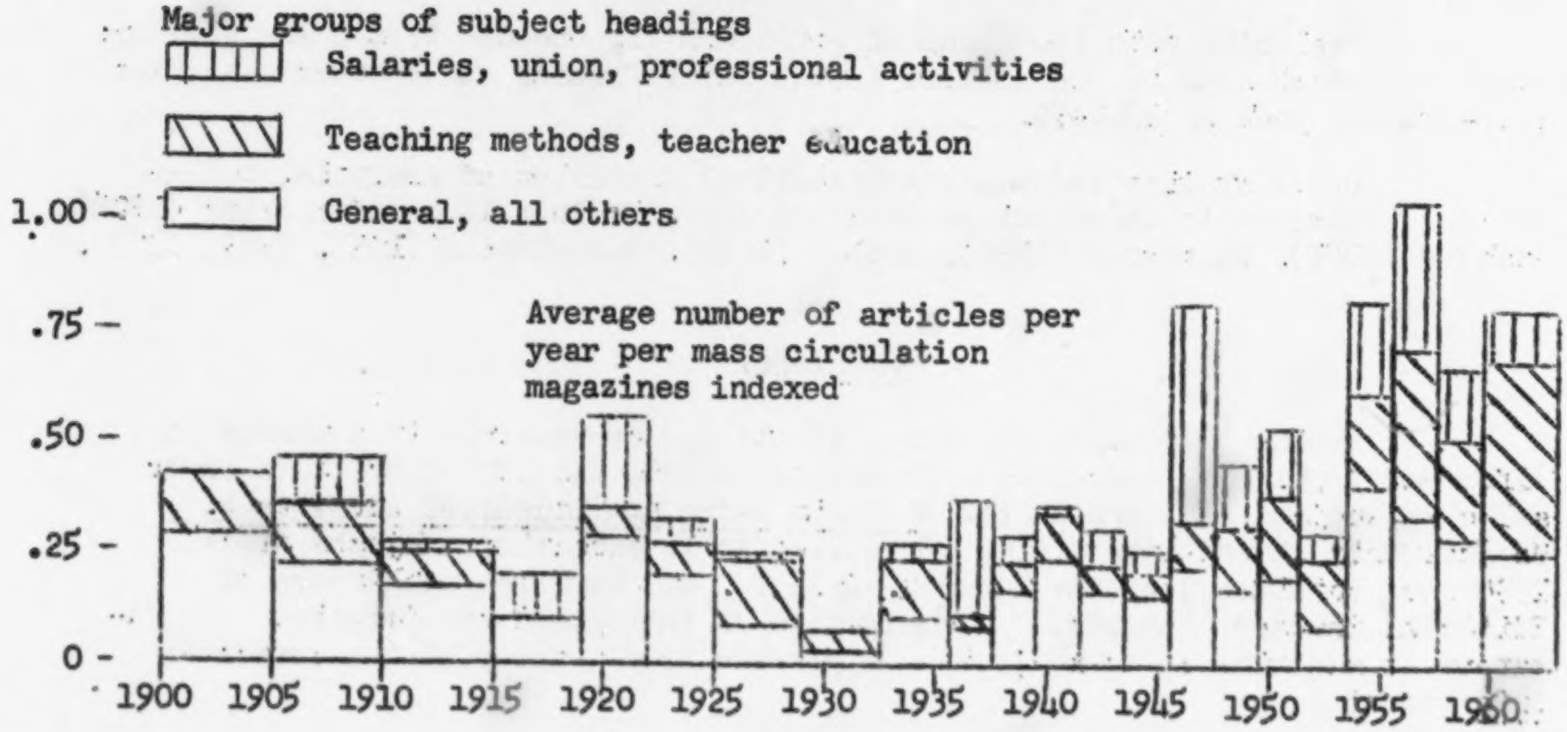


FIGURE 6

MASS CIRCULATION MAGAZINE ARTICLES LISTED IN THE READER'S GUIDE UNDER "EDUCAT-" AND "TEACH-" HEADINGS

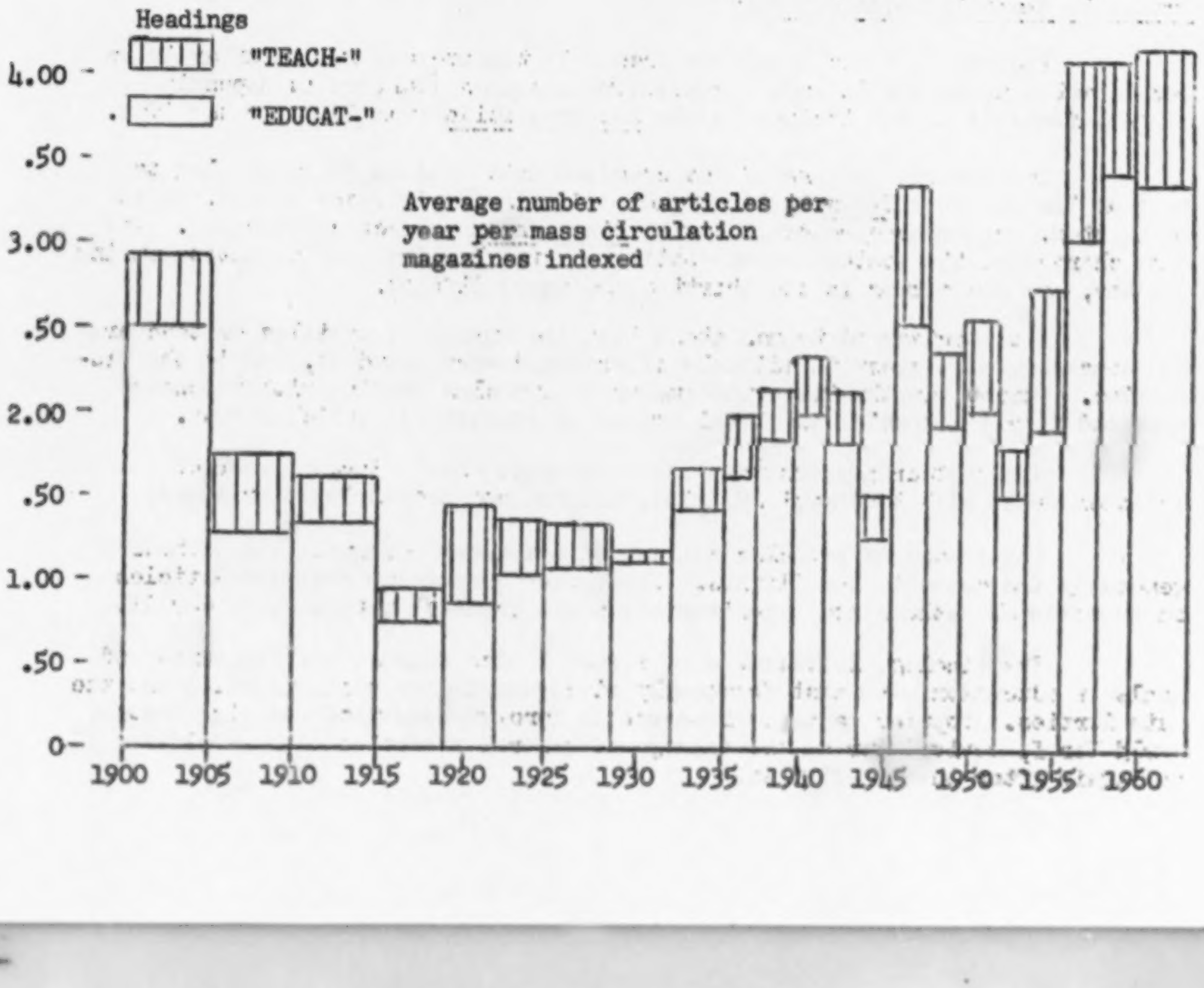


FIGURE 7

MASS CIRCULATION MAGAZINE ARTICLES LISTED IN THE READER'S GUIDE UNDER "EDUCAT-" SUBJECT HEADINGS

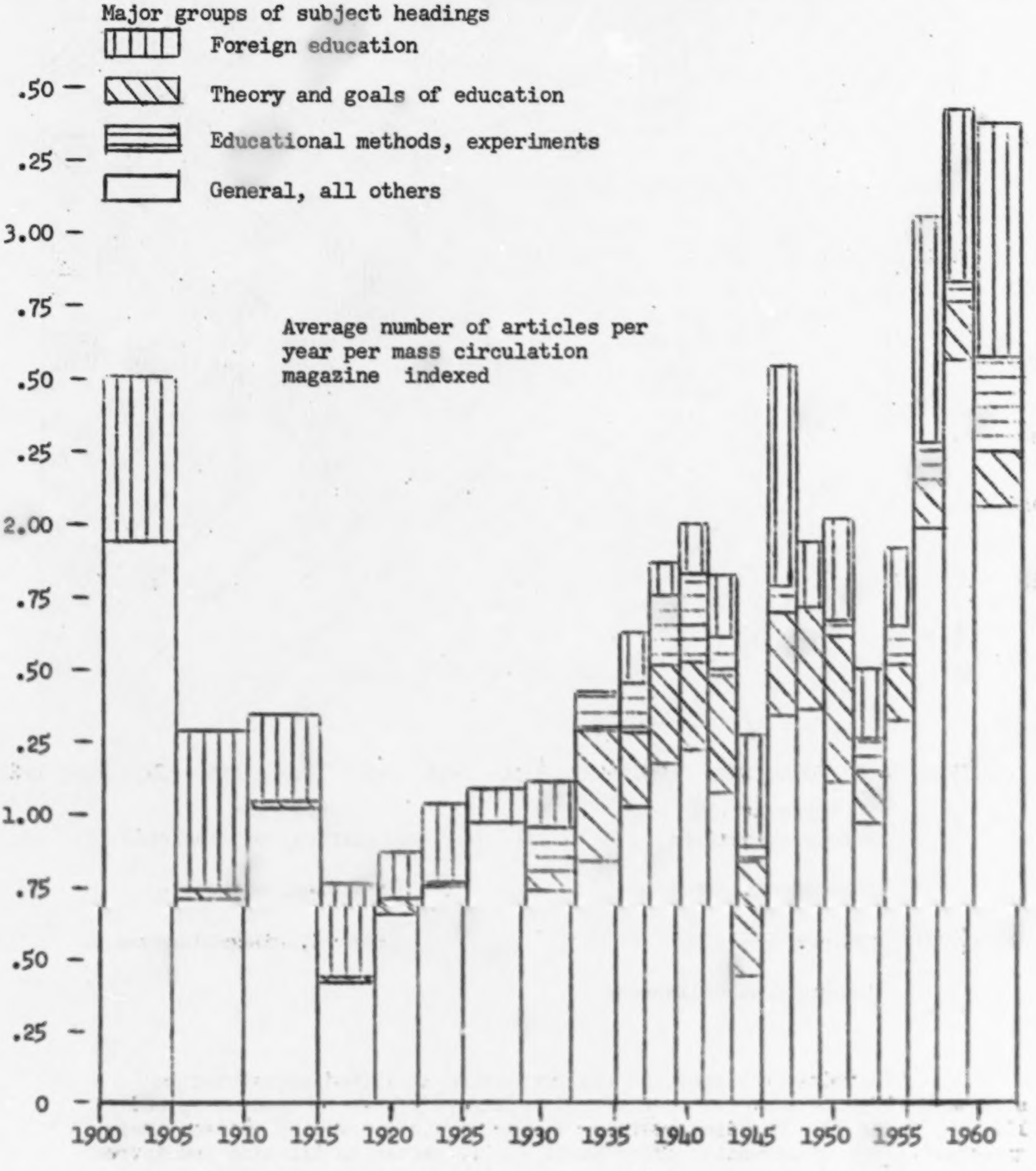
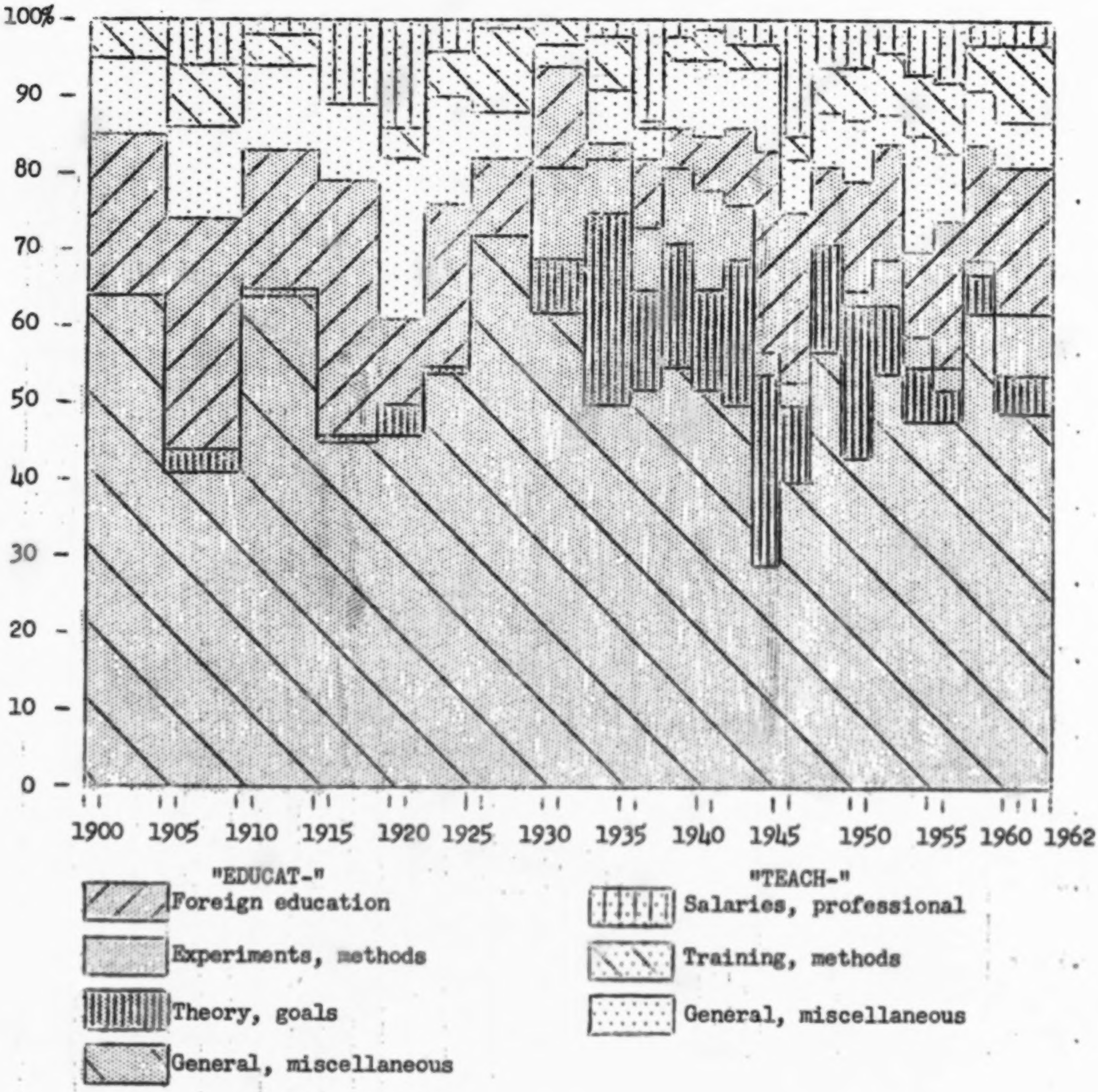


FIGURE 8

TRENDS IN ATTENTION DEVOTED TO SELECTED SUBJECTS EXPRESSED AS PERCENTS OF ALL LISTINGS UNDER "EDUCAT-" AND "TEACH-" HEADINGS IN THE READER'S GUIDE



The relative trends in the proportion of attention devoted to selected subjects can best be examined on Figure 8 above (based on Appendix II-A-5, Table 5). Magazine articles on teachers and teaching claimed their greatest share of attention after World War I. After an all-time low in the early thirties, and while the number of articles on teachers and teaching remained fairly constant, their proportion of the total rose. Spurts of attention devoted to salaries, unions, and professional problems (including political activities and investigations) marked periods of high share of attention, and were followed by periods of attention devoted to teacher training and methods, marking relatively low periods of attention.

The proportionate share of popular magazine attention devoted to educational theories, goals, experimentation, and methods generally declined after World War II, even as discussion of foreign education and teacher training increased their share of the total.

Circulation and frequency rankings

The average annual circulation of relevant articles was computed from the time of the first listing in the Reader's Guide to March, 1959, and from that date to January 1, 1963. The figure obtained is the average annual circulation of articles related to education and teaching (not the circulation of the magazine itself) for the two periods. That figure answers the question "Which magazines were the leading mass-distributors of articles on education and teaching in American popular culture?" The following is a ranking of the first 10 of these magazines. The list is taken from the more complete and detailed tabulation contained in Appendix II-A-3, Table 3. The ranking is based on the 1959-1963 period. Gain or loss in rank (if any) from the earlier time period is also indicated.

Rank 1959-63	Magazine and ave. annual circ. of total no. of relevant articles		Change in circ. rank from pre-1959 period		
			Gain in rank	No change in rank	Loss in rank
1	Reader's Digest	48,520		x	
2	Sat. Eve. Post	42,806	+3		
3	Time	41,633		x	
4	Life	28,398	+2		
5	Ladies' Home Journ.	23,962	+3		
6	Newsweek	21,430	+4		
7	Look	15,692			-5
8	NY Times Magazine	15,609			-1
9	Parents' Magazine	13,847		x	
10	McCall's	13,802			-6

The Reader's Digest is, and has been for some time, the nation's leading mass-distributor of magazine articles on education and teaching. It supplies an average of 48 million copies a year. This is due to its huge circulation; it is the only one of the 10 circulation leaders which failed to increase its average frequency of relevant articles in recent years. Even though the Reader's Digest prints an average of only about four relevant articles a year, these achieve a total annual circulation three and a half times greater than that of the nearly twice as many articles printed by Parents' Magazine.

The Saturday Evening Post is in second place, primarily because of an increase in the frequency of relevant articles (and consequently of their aggregate circulation) over the average established in the previous period. The Luce magazines Time and Life are next in average annual circulation of all articles about education and teaching. Life advanced from sixth to fourth rank over its earlier period, Newsweek from tenth to sixth, Ladies' Home Journal from eighth to fifth. Look and McCall's dropped in rank (although not in the actual number) of average circulation of relevant articles per year.

Next we list the ten leading mass circulation magazines in order of their average annual frequency of articles indexed in Reader's Guide from March, 1959 through 1962, together with an indication of change in rank (if any) from the previous period.

Rank 1959-63	Magazine and ave, no. of relevant articles per year listed in RG		Change in rank of number of articles from pre-1959 period		
			Gain in rank	No change in rank	Loss in rank
1	Time	17.0		x	
2	Newsweek	15.7		x	
3	NY Times Magazine	12.3	+2		
4	Parents' Magazine	7.6		x	
5	Sat. Eve. Post	7.0	+7		
6	US News and World Report	6.8		x	
7	Life	4.4	+12		
8	Atlantic	4.2	+1		
9	Reader's Digest	3.9			-1
10	Ladies' Home Journal	3.9	+3		

Time, Newsweek and the New York Times Magazine led in frequency of articles on education. Although all three have doubled their frequency in recent years, only the Times Magazine advanced in rank. It should be pointed out that Time and Newsweek have carried an Education department from the beginning of their publication, but only major articles on the subject were indexed in the Reader's Guide.

Life and the Saturday Evening Post have advanced most in their rank of the frequency of relevant articles since the period before 1959.

Space measures

Space measurements in these and other leading mass circulation magazines from 1938 through 1962 are given and explained in Appendix II-A, Tables 6 and 7. Findings on the amount and proportion of non-advertising space devoted to education in 15 individual popular magazines (Table 6) show Life magazine leading in amount of space but fourth in proportion of space (2.2 percent), behind Reader's Digest (3.2 percent), Parents' Magazine (3.0 percent), and Time (2.8 percent).

Trends in the amount and proportion of space devoted to education in the same 15 magazines are tabulated in Appendix II-A, Table 7. These trends are shown graphically on Figures 9 and 10. Both amount and proportion of space have doubled since 1938; percentage of space has followed the amount fairly consistently.

General trends in the allocation of magazine space (shown on Figure 9 below) are similar in certain important respects to trends in the frequency of magazine articles and of news stories. After the slump of the war years, the amount as well as the proportion of space reached the postwar height in the late forties. In 1950 magazines devoted more space to education than ever

FIGURE 9

SPACE DEVOTED TO EDUCATION IN 15 MASS CIRCULATION MAGAZINES
1938-1962

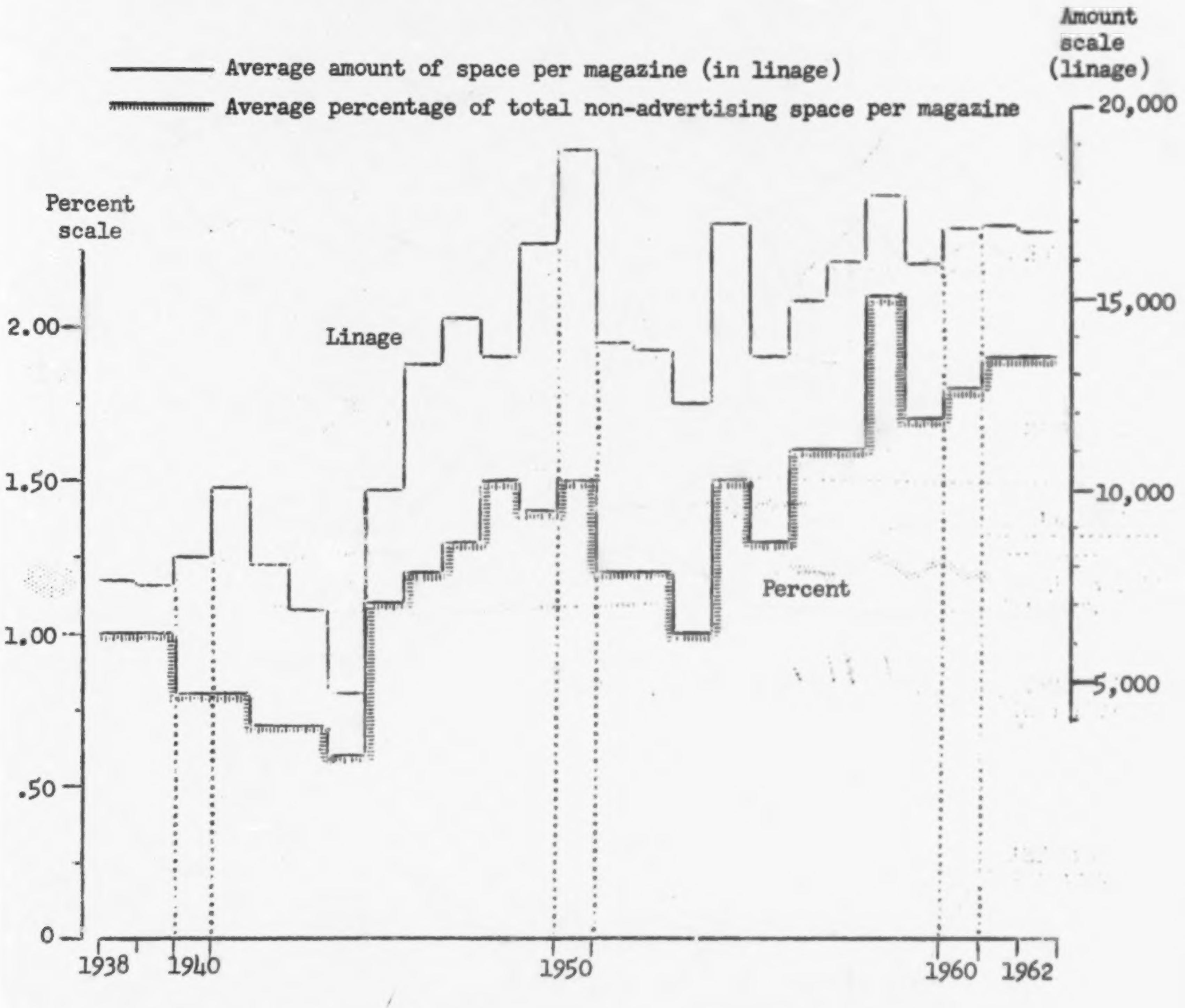
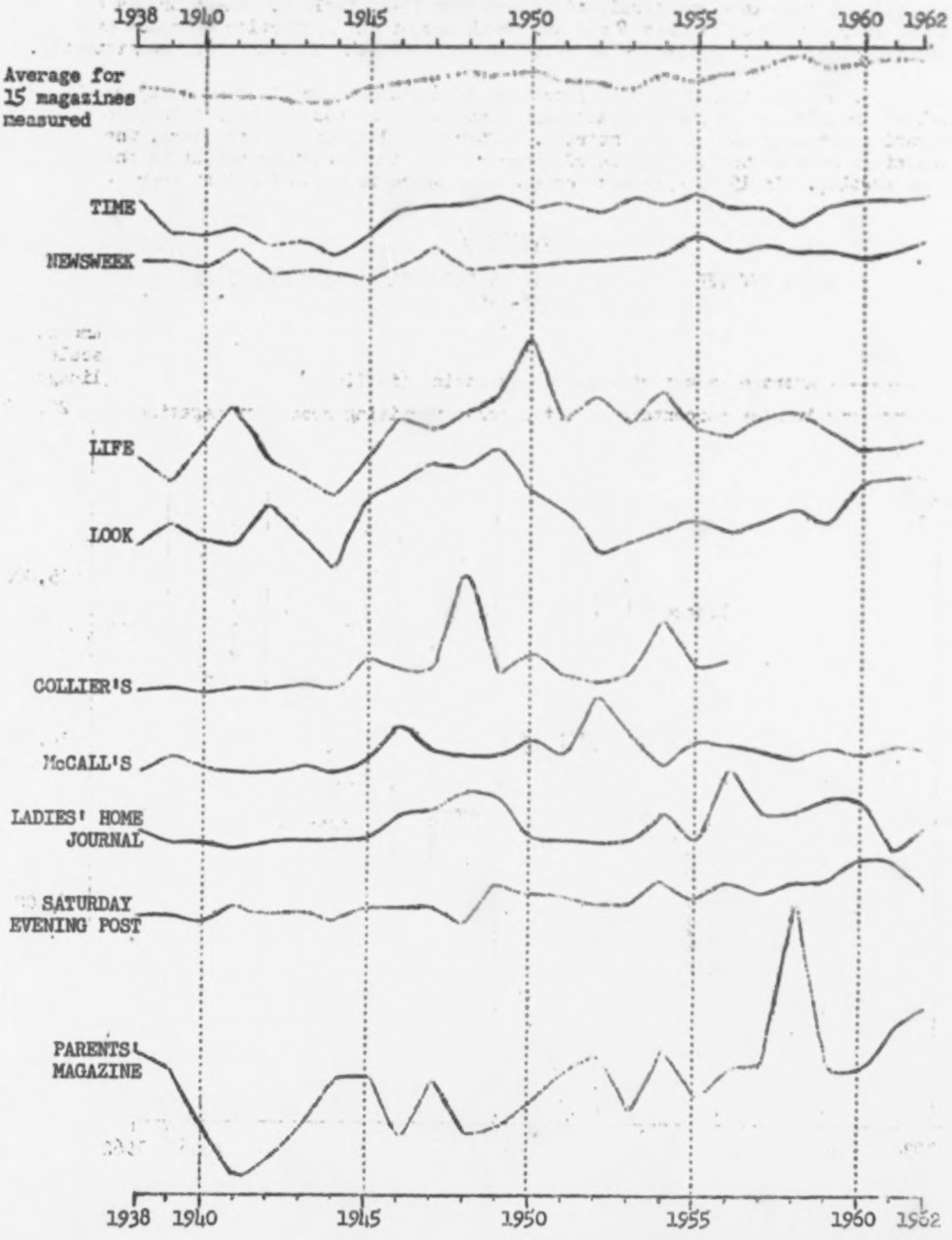


FIGURE 10

PERCENT OF NON-ADVERTISING SPACE DEVOTED TO "EDUCATION" IN U.S. MASS CIRCULATION MAGAZINES 1938-1963



before -- or since. (1950 was also a peak year for Times stories.) The proportion of magazine space declined, along with the amount of space, in the early fifties, but surpassed the 1950 level in the mid-fifties (as did the frequency of magazine articles and of Times stories) and rose to its highest point in the post-Sputnik year of 1958.

Figure 10 permits a graphic comparison of trends in the proportion of space allocated to articles on education in all 15 magazines measured, and in selected individual magazines. (The complete tabulations appear in Appendix II-A, Table 7.) Time, Life, Look, and Collier's devoted their greatest proportion of space to education sometime between 1947 and 1950; McCall's in 1952; Newsweek, Reader's Digest (not on the graph), Parents' Magazine, and Ladies' Home Journal in the mid-fifties, and the Saturday Evening Post in 1960-61.

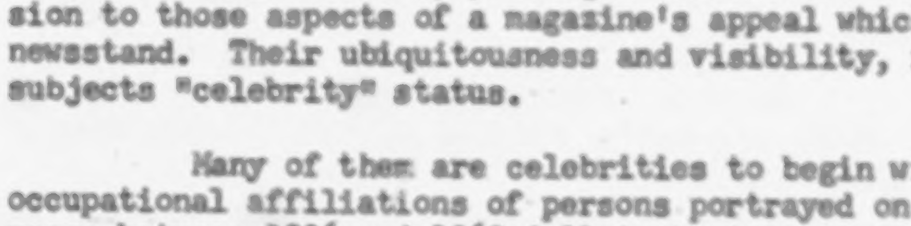
The full meaning of these findings rests in an examination of the specific contribution of each wave to the total composition of attention sketched earlier, and in a more detailed analysis of the policies and tendencies within the gross categories found in these studies. That task of historical analysis still remains to be done.

Life magazine covers

"Cover girl" and "on the cover of Life" have become common expressions of glamor, significance, prestige. Covers are designed to give outward expression to those aspects of a magazine's appeal which might enhance sales at the newsstand. Their ubiquitousness and visibility, if nothing else, gives their subjects "celebrity" status.

Many of them are celebrities to begin with. Nearly one-third of all occupational affiliations of persons portrayed on the cover of Life in the 25 years between 1936 and 1960 fell in that category. Military occupations were second with 15 percent, followed by fashions (11 percent), sports and recreation (also 11 percent), government and politics (10 percent), and education (6 percent). These and other categories of occupational affiliations on the cover of Life, and their percentage shares since 1936, are tabulated in Appendix II-A-8, Table 8.

Trends in the percentage share of educational associations on Life covers show some relationship to space allocation inside the magazine. Both declined during the war, rose to an all-time high in the immediate postwar period, then declined again. In the following comparison of the two trends, bars indicate average amount of non-advertising space Life devoted to schools and education (magnified ten-fold, based on space measurements tabulated in Appendix II-A-7, Table 7) and x symbols stand for the percentage share of educational associations out of all occupational affiliations portrayed on the cover of Life. (Space measurements for the first period were not available.)



A comparison of the above trends shows that the cover appeal of educational associations declined before the proportion of editorial space did; otherwise the trends were similar.

A tabulation of the types of subjects portrayed on the 72 Life covers associated with some aspect of education over the 25-year period showed football (players, teams, game scenes) leading with 22 percent. Next were military subjects (schools, cadets) with 19 percent; social affairs (dances, parties, queens) with 14 percent; college fashions with 14 percent; arts and sciences with 7 percent; and all others with 11 percent. Types of schools identified on the covers were divided among Ivy League and exclusive private colleges (33 percent), military academies (30 percent) and all other types of schools (37 percent).

Other magazine trend studies

As has already been noted, further examination and additional analysis of the specific composition and structure of relevant content over time are necessary to develop the full significance of these trends. The National Education Association's summary review service issued since 1927 (first entitled Education in Lay Magazines, now called Magazine Report), is a helpful guide to such examination, as are studies based on the NEA summaries, such as Van Til and Luecking (1949) and Whitley (1955).

Van Til and Luecking, for example, reported that the tenor of the 1946-48 period (including, as we have seen, the postwar peak in the overall amount of popular magazine attention) was generally "favorable to functional curriculum with real-life problems characteristic of content and active learning characteristic of method" and "favorable to financial support of broadly conceived American education." Whitley's study, continuing the analysis from 1949 to 1954, noted a sharp rise in critical tone as the overall amount of relevant attention (indicated in our measures) declined. A check of Education Index showed that educators' concern over rising criticism almost doubled from 1948 to 1949. Whitley's figures indicate that the percentage of primarily critical articles in popular magazines rose from 15 percent in 1949-50 to 21 percent in 1950-51. The following years popular magazine attention (as well as the proportion of books and Times stories) slumped to a peacetime low, as we have seen, while criticism in popular magazines was reported to have fallen to 12 and then 11 percent. By 1953-54, with magazine attention again on the rise, critical articles tabulated by Whitley also climbed to 15 percent of the total. However, this time, nearly half of the critical articles were written by educators themselves. Whitley cited the School and Society (December 16, 1953) list of "10 Outstanding Events in American Education in 1953" as including "The change in the source of criticism of education -- from 'enemies of public schools' to persons within the educational fold."

Such findings as these, and other suggestive studies including those of Martin (1950), Underwood (1959), and Hepler (1944), still need to be related to the specific content categories isolated in our trend studies. For a full development of the historical perspective a first-hand re-examination of much of the original material would also be necessary. The task was beyond our present scope. However, a discussion of the cumulative implication of some overall trends in media attention will conclude this chapter.

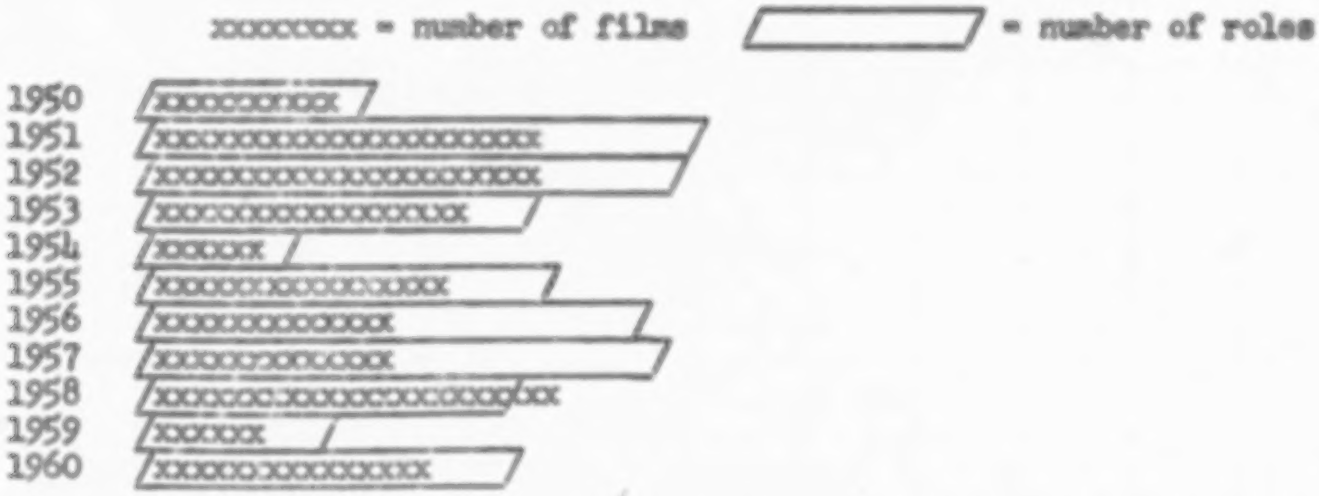
Movies

Some trends in the production of full-length feature movies presenting portrayals of schools and teachers can be found in the studies tabulated in Appendix II-A, Tables 12 to 16. Appendix IV-B, Tables 2 and 3, present shifts in thematic composition and structure of films produced before and after 1950.

Numbers and types of films

About 4 percent of Hollywood feature films produced from 1931 through 1960 presented significant portrayals of schools and teachers. While the number of these films showed no consistent tendency over the entire period, their proportion tended to increase in the fifties as the number of Hollywood films (and especially of the formula films of an earlier era) declined. (See Appendix II-A-10, Table 12.)

During the fifties, some trends of attention characteristic of the print media also appeared to be reflected in films, especially when we allow for the time lag involved in film production. The number of films dealing with schools and education, and the number of prominent teacher (or professor) roles in films (based on the figures of Appendix II-A-11, Table 14) are shown graphically below:



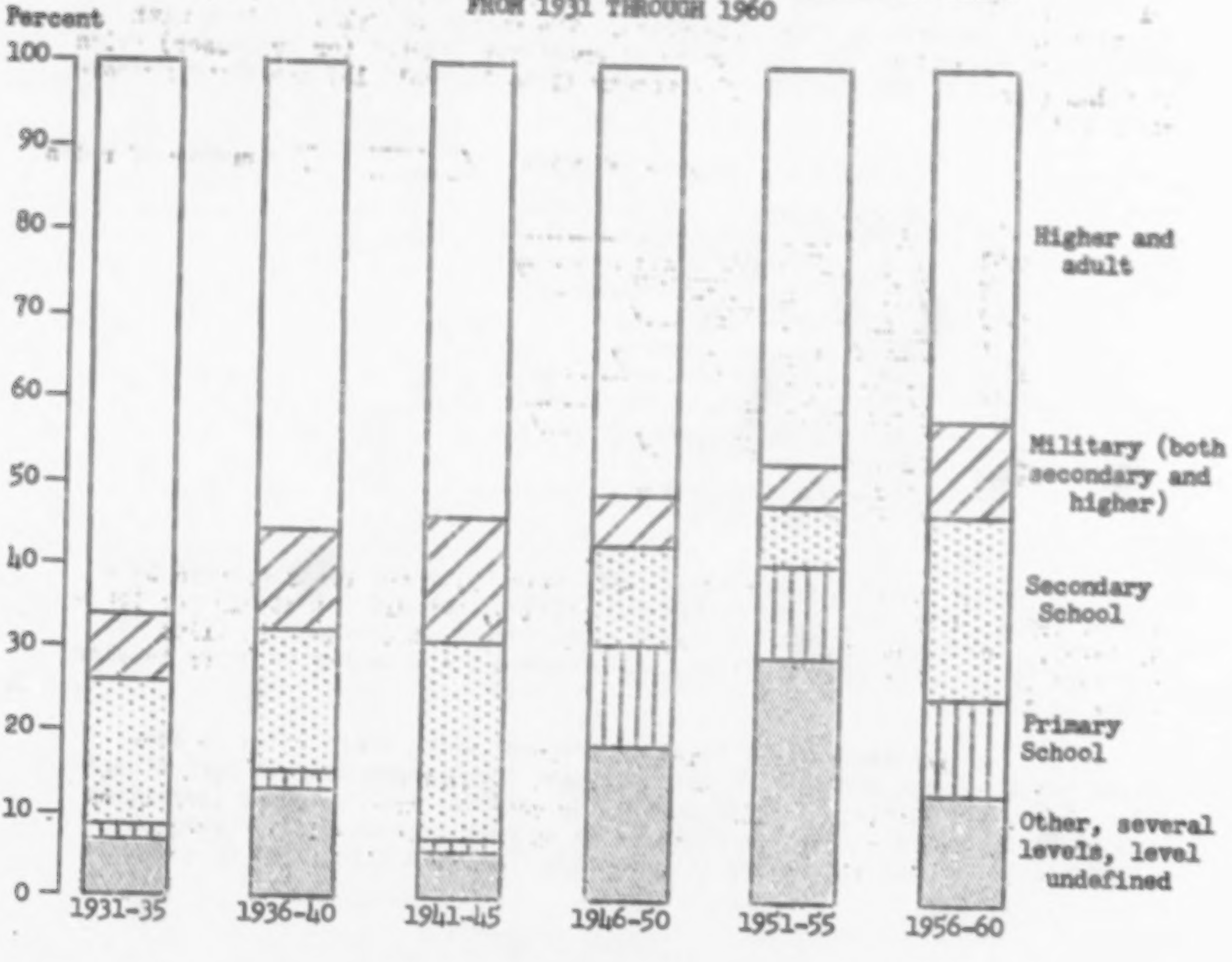
After the peak years of 1951-52, both films and roles plunged to a low by 1954. Both rose again in the mid-fifties, but did not attain the 1951-52 level. Prominent teacher-professor roles were most frequent in films released in 1956-57; school-related films exceeded the number of major teacher roles in 1958.

Comedies were nearly twice as frequent among these films as among films not involving schools and teachers; the percentages were 20 percent and 12 percent, respectively. Films portraying schools, teachers, and (sometimes "mad") professors included more than twice as many science-fiction subjects (11 percent) as did other films (5 percent). Compared with films of an earlier era portraying schools and teachers, the proportion of comedies declined from 23 to 20 percent while the proportion of science fiction films jumped from 3 to 11 percent. Teachers and schools were more likely to be seen in adventure films than before (an increase from 2 to 7 percent), but that proportion was still half of the proportion of adventure films among all other movies released from 1950 through 1960. (These and other trends in traditional film format categories can be seen in Appendix II-A-10, Table 13.)

Trends in the level and type of education portrayed in Hollywood films since 1931 have been tabulated in Appendix II-A-11, Table 15. They are shown graphically in Figure 11. The percent of college films has steadily decreased. The proportion of films involving secondary schools was highest during World War II, and in the late fifties. Primary schools received significant attention as subjects or settings of films only since World War II. Interest in military schools was highest during the war, and revived in the late fifties.

FIGURE 11

TRENDS IN LEVEL AND TYPE OF EDUCATION PORTRAYED IN FILMS FROM 1931 THROUGH 1960



Themes in films

The analysis of thematic composition and structure described in Appendix IV-B, included 301 Hollywood films portraying schools or teachers (or both) produced between 1931 and 1950, and 160 such films produced from 1950 through 1960. Overall thematic structure of the two samples was compared by rank correlation of theme frequencies (See Appendix IV-B-6, Table 3). The correlation coefficient was .88 indicating little structural change. However, changes in the ranks of individual thematic elements reflected changes in the types of films as noted above, and certain shifts in general film content. (These can be found by comparing Columns 3 and 4 in Appendix IV-B-5, Table 2.)

High-ranking themes (among the first 10 of the 21 used in the analysis) which advanced more than three ranks since the pre-1950 period indicated the increasing frequency of international and ethnic settings and subjects, and the rise of science fiction. Low-frequency gains reflected psychological and religious concerns in post-1950 films.

The only high-frequency theme dropping more than three ranks was crime, probably due to the decline (or shift to television) of the traditional murder mystery. The incidence of literature, arts, and humanities in films involving education also declined in the fifties.

. . . .

Comics

A study of one-year's (1958) content of Puck: The Comic Weekly found reference to teachers, schools, or education in 84 (5.7 percent) of a total of 1,456 separate strip titles appearing that year. Nearly one-third of these involved some classroom, school, or other teaching situation, and more than 85 percent (but only 60 percent of all strips) appeared in a humorous context. (These and other findings of the comic strip study can be found in Appendix II-A-9,,Tables 10 and 11.)

Some conclusions

Trends and patterns of mass media attention traced in these studies warrant further investigation and careful historical interpretation. Much of the data included in this report was presented to make further analysis possible. As we have noted before, closer analysis of the materials and the historical and educational background is necessary before a definitive statement could be made about the recent history of the "image" of education in American popular culture. Here we can only note a few recurring findings and suggest an approach to their interpretation.

The approach lies in the conception of mass media as social organizations and corporate structures which, as we have suggested in the introduction to this chapter, have their own institutional interests and stakes in the overall allocation of resources. The way in which these interests and stakes are construed by policy-makers changes from time to time in response to economic necessity, political "climate," and internal and external relationships governing policy-making. The following chapters will attempt to probe into some of these relationships. Here we merely suggest that historical analysis of institutional behavior is necessary for the understanding of trends in the attention devoted by the mass media to education or any other social enterprise.

Why, for example, did some media devote more attention to education before 1910 than ever since, as our evidence suggests? Some historians such as Hofstadter, Cremin, and Callahan, suggest that such attention reflected the peak of the vocational education and the progressive movements which, propelled by "muckraking" journalism, actually led to the introduction of educational programs of direct usefulness to the rapidly rising business and industrial forces. If we regard mass media as cultural arms of the industrial order (which they must be almost by definition), we can interpret the high level of attention accorded to the vocational and progressive movements as an effort to adjust education to the needs of the times without a radical or far-reaching re-allocation of public resources. For these movements represented "primarily an attempt to cope with the problems which were the product of rapid industrialization; the consolidation of industry and the concentration of wealth; the ruthless exploitation of the country's natural resources; the corruption and inefficiency of government; the tremendous growth of cities; the flood of immigrants who added to the complexity of the social and political problems in the urban areas; and, finally, the fear among the middle class that America would react to these problems in an extreme or radical way. . . ."*

Efforts to effect a major re-allocation of resources to solve the mounting educational problems involved in the vast social changes of twentieth century America failed then, and since; but then as now, the agitation resulted in the passage of federal grants to the states for specific programs of most direct usefulness to the local power structures.

World War I brought further industrial expansion and the passage of federal legislation establishing vocational education programs. Mass media attention slumped, only to be revived after the war by the discovery that many basic problems remained. Draft board records revealed that "close to 25 percent of the draftees were illiterate, that surprisingly large numbers did not speak English, and that the great majority of the one-third who were physically unfit suffered from defects that could have been remedied if identified at school age."** Yet it appears that shortly after the initial burst of attention, few of the remedial measures advocated and none of the federal aid bills introduced came to pass; and mass media attention ebbed again in the postwar counterattack to "radical" or even progressive measures of no immediate usefulness to the now prospering industrial establishment. On the contrary, great pressure was brought to bear to operate schools according to the principles of "scientific management" and "sound business administration." A professional corps of public school administrators, dependent on local power and vulnerable to local pressures emerged in the twenties, and school public relations became a recognized specialty.*

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*Cf. e.g. Raymond E. Callahan, Education and the Cult of Efficiency. Chicago, Ill.: The University of Chicago Press, 1962, p. 3 ff.

**Frank J. Munger and Richard F. Fenno, Jr., National Politics and Federal Aid to Education. Syracuse University Press, 1962, pp. 3-5.

The crash of 1929 directed major mass media attention to the convulsions of the economic system and their political repercussions. The proportion of news and magazine stories devoted to education declined to their lowest point since World War I. Educational expenditures declined by one-fourth between 1929 and 1935; the drop in national income was even sharper. Public school systems in many states were near collapse. Over 25 emergency aid bills were introduced in Congress; none passed. Education had a depression but no New Deal.

While no direct federal aid, or increased national attention, was given schools during the depression, the plight of teachers attracted some of both. In 1934 it was estimated that 40,000 teachers were being paid from relief funds, and Congress eventually authorized the Reconstruction Finance Corporation to allocate loans to meet overdue teachers' salaries. At the same time, there was a relative increase in news stories and magazine articles about teachers.

Another feature of mass media attention characteristic of the thirties was the high proportion of material dealing with higher education and college life, especially in the movies. A check on movie themes revealed that athletics, crime, and corruption were the dominant motifs, perhaps reflecting in part the rising financial and public-relations significance of college football (as well as criticism of it), and the influence of the gangster film at the height of its popularity.

The gradual shift to war production accompanied and stimulated economic recovery, but also defeated new attempts to allocate major national resources for the still depressed educational enterprise. Although dollar expenditures and mass media attention devoted to education increased until the outbreak of World War II, educational expenditures as percent of gross national product declined in the late thirties and dropped sharply in the early forties. The only major educational legislation enacted during this time provided funds for schools affected by national defense and other federal activities.

During World War II expenditures for schools remained stagnant while industrial production reached near-capacity levels for the first time in decades. Consequently, the proportion of the gross national product invested in education in 1944 was less than half the 1932 percentage. Mass media attention was also at its lowest since World War I and the depression. Few new schools were built during the war, and the school plant had further deteriorated. Educational shortages, deficiencies, and inequalities were again revealed by the draft and the rapidly growing need for trained manpower.** Teachers had deserted the profession in droves. Inflation hit hard those who remained. The first wave of the flood of "war babies" reached the elementary schools by 1946. More strikes idled more teachers for more days that year than during the previous six years put together, and the numbers kept rising.*** Furthermore, as Brown University

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*Cf. Callahan, op. cit., p. 225.

**Cf. e.g. I. L. Kandell, The Impact of the War Upon American Education. Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1948.

***Myron Lieberman, "Teachers Strikes: An Analysis of the Issues," Harvard Educational Review 26:40-69, January-December, 1956.

President Henry M. Wriston told the New York Chamber of Commerce in 1948, "Teachers' strikes should be regarded as . . . 'a fire bell in the night.'" He warned that "There is no possibility of accounting for the strikes without taking into consideration the drift of many intellectuals away from a profound conviction as to the rightness and the validity of the existing social, economic, and political situation."*

Confronted with unprecedented financial problems and caught in the political counter-currents of the times, school systems expanded their community information activities. Listings under "Public Relations" in the *Encyclopedia of Educational Research* increased from four studies in 1941 to six pages in 1950. Mass media attention zoomed by the late forties.

A study of state aid to education in the Northeast noted that "the general context was the widespread recognition of need: the need to repair and replace school buildings and equipment which had run down during depression and the war; the need to meet the competition of the market in a full-employment economy which offered teachers and school administrators occupational options; the need to adjust for inflation; the need to expand facilities and staff to meet the demands of a growing school population -- especially in fast-growing metropolitan suburbs. No amount of bootstrap activity by interested groups could have substituted for the widespread public recognition of educational need which postwar events made evident."**

Public recognition of the need, and the accelerating tempo of controversy over the solutions, rode the crest of the wave of postwar mass media attention evident in all our findings. But, as the study of state aid pointed out, "the general recognition of need is inchoate. The extent to which a state responds to a publicly recognized need is a function of very particular energies operating within a very specific context."***

Senator Robert A. Taft, a principal opponent of federal school aid bills, changed his position and joined in sponsoring federal aid legislation. The U.S. Chamber of Commerce, the American Farm Bureau Federation, and even the American Legion wavered in their traditional opposition to a national solution.****

The watershed of high hopes appears to have been 1948. The G.I. Bill of Rights had given American higher education its biggest boost since the land grants and Morrill Acts of the last century. After the 1948 elections, "enthusiasm ran high among the proponents of federal aid. A federal aid bill had failed to clear the House Committee in the 79th Congress only by a single vote and it was expected that favorable action could now be secured. Selective service rejections during the war had emphasized continuing illiteracy, and the postwar teacher and classroom shortages further dramatized the demand for federal action." But "the confidence proved misplaced."[*] As after World War I, the counterattack which was to dash hopes of fundamental reform had already begun. The reaction to the reform movement thus precipitated what Lawrence A. Cremin called the "deepest educational crisis in the nation's history,"[**] a crisis still deepening fifteen years later.

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*Address at the Chamber of Commerce Building, New York, N.Y., November 4, 1948.

**Stephen K. Bailey, Richard T. Frost, Paul E. Marsh, and Robert C. Wood, *Schoolmen and Politics; A Study of State Aid to Education in the Northeast*. Syracuse, N.Y.: Syracuse University Press, 1962, pp. 103-104.

****Loc. cit.*

****Munger and Fenno, *op. cit.*, pp. 27 f.

The assault on the movement for educational and fiscal reconstruction combined the intellectual criticism of "progressive education" growing since the early forties with the newly rising political reaction to the general reformist zeal of postwar years, culminating in the so-called McCarthy era. The brief flurry of mass media attention given to federal school aid declined after the final defeat of the bill. Federal aid as a major national issue was soon eclipsed by attention devoted to school desegregation, an issue which also implied resource-reallocation but which -- along with the religious issue -- helped to defeat federal aid bills for many years to come.

Where strong educational and political leadership was lacking or intimidated by the mounting attacks on "progressive" and "unamerican" ideas, and where, in the words of the Northeast study, "tax-minded businessmen with the help of a conservative press create a strong ethos against state spending and state action,"[***] schoolmen found rough sledding.

Many of the attacks on education began over the issue of increased taxes.[****] In Pasadena, in one of the first major postwar setbacks for public education, the necessity for increasing the tax rate was attacked, and even the state "unamerican" investigating committee was summoned, as if the money were to be spent for radical innovation instead of simply for maintaining the level of previous years.

While total dollar expenditures increased, they did not keep pace with the suddenly rising income and production figures prior and during the Korean war. The percentage of gross national income devoted to education declined. Only four states devoted as large a percentage of income to education in 1949-50 as they had in 1937-38.

Rising enrollments, mounting costs, and the cumulative impact of long neglect confronted many communities with unprecedented problems. Schools were forced time and again to go to state legislatures and the voting public to be able to hold their own. But tax and bond elections provided opportunities for new attacks on already weakened and vulnerable school districts. The power structure of most communities was, by and large, unable or unwilling either to accept local solutions adequate to the needs or to share the burden -- and possibly control over resource-allocation -- with the federal government. In 1953, the U.S. Commissioner of Education reported school construction $10 billion behind the need, wrote an article about "The Coming Breakdown in American Education," and resigned in protest over cuts in the Office of Education budget. The open season on radical, liberal and "progressive" ideas pressing for solutions to postwar problems had taken a heavy toll of educational leadership and courage. Politically vulnerable and financially dependent on local control, sentiment, and taxability, the schools found themselves increasingly at the mercy of their "bridge of communication" to the general public -- the mass media.

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[*] *Ibid.*, p. 10.

[**] Lawrence A. Cremin, *The Transformation of the School*. N.Y.: Alfred A. Knopf, 1962, p. 339.

[***] Bailey *et al.*, *op. cit.*

[****] Cf. David Hulburd, *This Happened in Pasadena*. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1951.

The critical years of 1948-53 saw the gathering and clashing of forces that were to shape American education, and perhaps national development itself, for decades ahead. The mass media played an ambivalent role. First of all, the proportion of attention devoted to education declined, along with the relative allocation of financial resources, in the early fifties. Secondly, many newspapers became the primary vehicles for the counter-attacking forces, and other media either abetted or were intimidated by the onslaught.

"As early as 1948," wrote film critic Penelope Houston, "William Wyler was saying that he would not be permitted to make 'The Best Years of Our Lives' in the new Hollywood."[*] Looking back on the years of the blacklist, she wrote: "Severely hit by the tornado of McCarthyism, Hollywood, that vulnerable and cautious community, has been some time in recovering its nerve, in regaining the degree of social awareness that characterized American cinema a few years ago. Predictably, the route back to controversy was first clearly signposted at the box-office . . ."[**]

Interestingly enough, the "route back to controversy" in popular fiction and drama also appears to have followed the same back road to basic resource problems as it had in newspaper attention. The road was blazed by such successful productions as "Blackboard Jungle" and "Rebel Without a Cause," "High School Confidential," and "Juvenile Jungle," which, as their titles imply, reflected in an indirect and backhanded fashion bitter fruits of educational neglect, deterioration, and inequality.

The progressive education movement which had most consistently called attention to the problems now erupting into racial and class conflict and violence was dead. In the words of one of its supporters, it could not "withstand that powerful coalition of political, industrial, business and military forces which came to dominate overwhelmingly the ideological climate of this nation, and which succeeded so effectively in controlling its organs of mass communication, its governmental agencies and its public morality."[***]

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[*] Penelope Houston, The Contemporary Cinema, Baltimore, Maryland: Penguin Books, 1963, p. 51.

[**] Penelope Houston, "Rebels Without Causes," Sight and Sound 25:178-181, Spring 1956.

[***] [illegible]

The "era" of the early fifties appears to have made education itself a "controversial" subject, inhibited its discussion in the public media, and changed the tone and complexion of its coverage. The again increasing volume of largely critical discussion in the mid-fifties, featuring educators themselves in ever increasing numbers, prepared the ground for the "bitter orgy of pedagogical soul-searching"* following the launching of the first Sputnik in 1957. One could speculate whether, without such preparation, it might not have been equally logical to hold industrial resource planning (or its lack of it) responsible for the technological lag which the Soviet satellites exposed. At any rate, Sputnik seems to have signaled the culmination rather than the origin of a period of searching critical attention focused on American education in the mass media. By the time the financial implications of educational imperatives of the technological age became apparent again and resulted in major legislative proposals, mass media attention leveled off again and no comprehensive school aid bill was enacted. Certain aspects of the institutional dynamics governing the allocation and composition of press attention in the early sixties will be explored in the following chapters.

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*Cremin, op. cit., p. 347.

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CHAPTER II

EDUCATION REPORTING ON LARGE AMERICAN DAILY PAPERS

> The press is the major medium of public relations for most school systems. It usually constitutes the most important single channel of communication through which the community learns about, and interprets, the policies, programs, and activities of its schools.
>
> Neal Gross in The Schools and the Press

This begins a series of chapters probing into the structure and process of information, and the nature of institutional relationships between education and the press, at several points. Our point of departure is the education reporter on the American daily paper. An examination of his status, problems, and relations with schoolmen on the local level leads to the consideration of some national issues in education reporting. The chapter concludes with suggestions for placing the approach of the press toward local concerns and national issues in education into a broader institutional perspective.

Chapter III presents a case study of the nature and patterns of educational press coverage on the national level. Chapter IV reports on inquiries into the structure of information flow in other countries, and Chapter V concludes the press findings with case studies and a comparative analysis of relevant content in all countries studied.

The flow of mass media information relevant to another social enterprise such as education has aspects of a transmission and "gate-keeping" process, of a more-or-less structured set of relationships between two institutions, and of an historical situation. Some consideration of all these aspects is necessary for a meaningful discussion of each one, but not all aspects are amenable to the same type of investigation. This chapter, as some of the succeeding ones, is based largely on information collected from people intimately involved in the mass media information process affecting the state of public knowledge and popular conceptions about education and teachers. The value of such information resides as much in the context of institutional and historical circumstances from which they arise as in the views themselves. Sometimes our informants sketched in this context. If not, it was found in other studies or published accounts or through the investigator's own inquiries and observations. The discussion of trends in the previous chapter should also help to establish the historical perspective at least for the United States.

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This chapter is based largely on the views of newsmen, expressed in their own words. The purpose of our survey, however, was not only to review the state and problems of school news reporting as newsmen see it but also to contribute to an institutional analysis of the relationships which affect the approach of the press to other institutions in general and to the educational enterprise in particular.

The inquiry began by sending letters asking for the views of education editors of 119 daily newspapers with circulations over 100,000 in 1961, and requesting follow-up interviews. Instead of presenting a formal questionnaire, the letters invited newsmen to express in their own words what they thought and how they felt about their jobs and relations with schoolmen. The letter stated, in part:

> Your views are important to our study. I would be especially interested in your comments about the status and functions of the education editor, and about the nature and problems of press contacts with major school systems in the community, and such organizations as NEA, AF of T, and their local affiliates, and with other educational news sources. I would also be grateful for a brief description of your paper's policy on school and education news.

Despite this rather ambitious request, 32 of the replies contained substantial information. These replies came from every part of the country except the deep south. Personal follow-up interviews were arranged with 15 respondents. Additional comments were received from six education reporters on Gannett newspapers.* The total sample of sources represents the views of the more cooperative (and thus perhaps largely -- although not exclusively -- the more secure and successful) reporters and editors about their jobs, contacts, and problems.

In addition to the queries addressed to education editors and reporters, similar letters were written to the directors of public information in all school systems and some colleges and universities in areas served by the newspapers queried. Many replies were received and follow-up interviews were held also with educational public relations personnel. However, a discussion of these findings is beyond the scope of the present study. Some of the conclusions derived from the survey of public relations in education will be noted or summarized when relevant to the views of newsmen. Similarly, the findings of other studies, especially the Gross (1956) survey, will be cited when necessary to add a more systematic and quantitative dimension to what was essentially designed to represent an exploration in depth of education reporters' views about their own field and work.

Published and unpublished information on education reporting and related subjects was also collected and will be used as appropriate.

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*Thanks go to Mr. Joseph N. Freudenberger, Director of Special Publications of the Gannett newspapers, for his assistance in circulating our query, and for making available two special issues of the Gannetteer (1960, 1963) devoted to "Campus and Newspaper" and to a symposium by education reporters.

Some of the information used in this study was available only on condition that the source would not be identified. In order to preserve the anonymity of such sources, names of newsmen, newspapers, etc., will be given only when the information is based on published sources.

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We shall first sketch the rise and discuss the significance of education reporting on the national scene. The state of the field in the sixties will be presented largely through the comments and descriptions of newsmen discussing their assignments, tasks, status, criteria for newswriting and selection, and the qualifications believed necessary or desirable for the job. The third section deals with the nature and some problem areas of contacts between newsmen and schoolmen both on the local community and on the national professional organizational levels. A discussion of major issues and some suggestions for an institutional analysis of press-school relationships conclude the paper.

The rise of the field

Specialized coverage of education news began with the advent of _Time_ magazine in 1923. _Newsweek's_ education department followed 15 years later. The New York _Times_ hired Benjamin Fine as school reporter in 1937, and elevated him to education editor in 1941. Veteran newsmen recall that at that time most reporters regarded education a "woman's field." Through the postwar rise in concern, attention, and controversy, education emerged as more than only a local service feature. As school news was found to affect not only the quality of learning but also the community power structure and the allocation of local and national resources, it took on some of the visibility and significance of business and politics. But, being increasingly separated from municipal government, school system finances and politics could not be reported as part of the "City Hall beat."

Boom, bust, or business as usual?

The Education Writers Association, composed of working newsmen, was organized in 1947. Old-timers in education reporting consider the late forties and the early fifties as the time of the "professionalization" of educational journalism, at least on larger papers. It was during that troublesome era, they recall, that reporters steeped in the ethos of the trade replaced cubs and amateurs (often students or educators writing school news) to bring more concentrated attention and undivided loyalties to bear upon the increasingly newsworthy field.

Sputnik I was launched in October, 1957. The same month the New York _Herald Tribune_, giving special Sunday coverage to education since 1943, boosted its coverage to six days a week, and made its education editor responsible for school news coming in from all sources. A few other metropolitan dailies followed suit. The Associated Press appointed a full-time education writer the following January.

In the summer of 1960, the New York Herald Tribune's education editor Terry Ferrer, spoke to the convention of the Association for Education on Journalism. The title of her talk was "Education Reporting Comes of Age." She began by relating the experience of her colleague on The Times shortly after World War II. The reporter arrived at the luncheon meeting of an educational organization to cover a prominent speaker, and asked for the press table. There was no press table. He was also told that he was not invited to lunch, but that if he came back later he would be permitted to come in a side door and listen to the speech.

A dozen years later, Miss Ferrer continued, a large university "offered these comforts to reporters covering its commencement on a broiling hot June day: An air-conditioned, glassed-in room raised off the ground for a clear view, a public-address system which piped in the proceedings, a pair of binoculars for every reporter, coffee, pastries, hard liquor (if desired), comfortable chairs, typewriters and enough telephones to go around."

"Between this perigee and apogee," said Miss Ferrer, "the education reporter has been launched into an orbit of prestige and influence to which he is totally unaccustomed."

The jargon of missilry was not accidental. A month before Miss Ferrer told journalism educators about "the changes which have made education reporting come of age," a student magazine published by the Department of Journalism of New York University headlined its front page feature "SPUTNIK SPURS EDUCATION REPORTING." Under the byline of Margie T. McGonigle (1960), the story began:

> For as long as any of us can remember America has led the world in standard of living, level of education and scientific achievement. But recent Soviet scientific advances have made Americans painfully aware of deficiencies in our educational system.
>
> Newspaper readers became impatient with accounts of panty raids, basketball rallies and campus beauty contests. Instead, they began demanding answers to the question: What are we doing to improve our schools?
>
> Then, in October, 1957, the Soviet Sputnik put the American education reporter into orbit. Editors finally woke up to the fact that readers wanted complete and up-to-date stories on our schools.

If Sputnik put the American education reporter into orbit, it was Time magazine which first tracked his path. On February 29, 1960, Time discovered the "BOOM ON THE SCHOOL BEAT." With characteristic deftness and gloss, Time sketched the rise of the school reporter:

> It used to be that the journalist assigned to education ranked somewhere below the real estate editor and above the chief copy boy. When Benjamin Fine, who spent 17 years

> as the New York Times education editor before moving last year to the North American Newspaper Alliance, first hit the Times for a job, City Editor David H. Joseph told him there were no "reporting jobs" open -- but took Fine on as an education writer. Recalls the New York Herald Tribune's Terry Ferrer: "In the early days, most of the papers used women who would be sent out on education stories when they weren't busy on society. A lot of stuff was passed off as education reporting when it really wasn't. I mean the pictures of college girls in tight sweaters and football helmets."
>
> A pent-up postwar demand for new schools and new teachers generated a new public interest in public education -- and forced newspapers to re-examine a neglected corner of the local scene. Inevitably, the hack writers began to disappear, and today's education reporter bears little resemblance to his predecessor. He knows his subject and often brings to it, as in the case of Ben Fine (who holds seven honorary and one earned doctorate degrees), actual experience in teaching. At an educators' conference several years ago, when one speaker tried to fob off some phony statistics on teacher-student ratios, the assembled reporters not only challenged them but were able to show where he was wrong.

Having retired the "hacks," Time surveyed the "new look" in education reporting:

> As one part of the new look in education coverage, the New York Times has three full-time education reporters working under Education Editor Fred M. Hechinger, who last week landed three education stories on Page One (one morning last week, the Times devoted three inside pages to education news). The New York Herald Tribune's Terry Ferrer (sister of Actor Mel Ferrer) has a staff of two, and last week the Trib gave full play to the beginning of her exhaustive, five-part study of U.S. colleges and universities. On the Minneapolis Star, the education beat is covered in depth: one man for higher education, another at the secondary and elementary level, still another staffer who keeps busy supervising the 35 high-school students who work as paid education stringer.
>
> In Chicago the Sun-Times's Education Editor Ruth Dunbar roves a beat that in recent years has encompassed Russia and the Far East, produced effective stories on the public-education systems in the Soviet Union, Korea and Japan. Helen Fleming, of the Chicago Daily News, writes with such telling effect on the local education scene that, after a series observing that the Chicago school system made only seven of 16 basic high-school courses compulsory, and questioning the latitude this left the student, the

> school board added four more courses to the compulsory list. In Los Angeles, as a public service, the Examiner each week distributes 114,000 copies of a current-events tabloid of 115 high schools. And Portland's Morrison, a tireless crusader for better schools, has helped get teachers' pay boosted, forced the Portland school board and the state board of higher education, which both used to hold closed-door meetings, to open up; in fact, the Portland board passed a resolution guaranteeing the press's right to cover all meetings.

"The education reporter no longer looks at the schoolroom picture windows or handsome parquet floors shown off by proud principals; instead he is interested in teachers and students," wrote Time. The new spirit of comradely interest and the new emphasis on interpretive reporting "has earned both the respect and the gratitude of the educators themselves." In fact, when their guardians were not on guard, Time suggested, schools suffered where it hurt most:

> When voters in a Portland, Ore. suburb recently torpedoed a tax increase that would have provided more money for their schools, Superintendent of Schools Floyd Light knew just what the trouble was: Wilma Morrison, education editor of the union-struck Portland Oregonian, had not been around to push for the measure. Said Light darkly: "Her being out definitely hurt us. The story was not brought before the public."
>
> In crediting Editor Morrison with such influence Light was pointing a finger at what may be the biggest boom in U.S. newspapers: education reporting, long neglected by the nation's daily press but now getting the benefit of better talent and more news space than ever before.

*

There were dissenting voices, too. "If you depend on your local newspaper for information on education," wrote veteran school public relations practitioners Gloria Dapper and Barbara Carter (1962), "chances are you have virtually no information or perspective on the major national issues in education and only the most fragmentary view of even the local schools picture."

University of New Mexico President Tom L. Popejoy told the 1963 meeting of state university presidents in Chicago that "I doubt if many of you have realized that the image of your university has for the most part been formed by the news media in your community and in your state on the basis of controversies, contests, contentions, and conflicts . . . ."

Not too long before he lost his post upon the heels of front-page charges of graft and corruption, New York City Superintendent of Schools John J. Theobald told the Eighth Annual Seminar of the National School Public Relations Association: "I must say to you that this was very cleverly planned. This was a period in which we couldn't get a line in the newspapers. Anything we said or reported was on a back page or smothered."

An unpublished study commissioned by a major private educational foundation explored the process of communicating education to the American public in 1959, and came to these conclusions:

> . . . It is reasonably clear that, whatever the reason, the press is not doing the full or incisive job which education demands (as distinct from the kind of job implicit in the functions of the press itself). The press concentrates on the local story, and particularly the political controversies; its broad coverage of the issues and new developments in education are too fragmentary, hit or miss, over-simplified; . . .
>
> Part of the trouble is that few editors understand there really is an educational frontier; part of the trouble also is a stereotype of thinking that the public is not interested in the subject . . . . But at least part of the trouble rests again in the complexity and confusion of the educational system, making it a difficult job (which is to say costly) to get the kind of hard facts which the press needs for its reports. And add to this an almost complete lack of really qualified education reporters and editors to go to work on the problem, and the picture comes clearer . . . .

Joseph N. Freudenberger, chief of special publications for Gannett newspapers, wrote an editorial forward to a special issue of The Gannetteer (1960) devoted to "Campus and Newspapers" in which he pointed out that the news values and purposes of editors and educators may overlap but are not, and, indeed, should not be, identical. He wrote:

> Education is the primary aim of colleges and universities; human-interest information -- which often is something quite different -- remains the No. 1 attraction of most newspapers. The fields overlap whenever teachers make education interesting and when editors make information educational. Yet there should never be complete identification of purpose between editors and educators.

Empirical studies bearing on education and the press, such as those by Roy E. Carter (1954), Richard F. Carter (1960), Carter and Sutthoff (1960), and Gross (1956), illuminated many of the complexities and problem areas of communication between schoolmen, newsmen, and the community. Carter's 1960 studies found, for example, that school financial elections were more likely to be successful when voter turnout was low. However, the role of the press in bringing out a larger and apparently more critical voter turnout was not analyzed. The most directly relevant study, The Schools and the Press by Gross (1956), conducted "before Sputnik," and limited to New England, found that "nearly two-fifths of the press and almost half of the superintendents felt that there was a basic conflict between the public service functions of the press and the fact that it is a business."

*

Our respondents' views on the reasons for the current significance and editorial policies in the field of school reporting reveal a combination of financial, educational, political, and reader-interest considerations. The following comments give an indication of the range and weight of newsmen's opinion:

> The public would like to know more about educational methods and purposes. Schools of all levels are one of the main topics of conversation at social gatherings. People have a right to know what their schools are doing. After all education gets the largest share of the tax dollar . . . .

*

> Adm. Rickover, and others, have made outspoken attacks on the schools and parents are beginning to take more interest. I believe this is something new -- different from my own school days when parents packed their children off to the nearest public school at the age of five or six and didn't give it another thought for 12 years when they might think to ask junior if he got his high school diploma.
>
> Another factor, of course, is the great emphasis today on a college education and the realization that a degree is not just nice to have but almost a necessity.
>
> These things have aroused public interest in schools and newspapers, responding, have started to poke and pry as they are wont to do.
>
> This, I believe, has been unsettling to the educators who have been unmolested for the last hundred years. They tend to try and hide behind the transparent shield of professionalism and tell newspapers to go mind their own business. They forget that schools are public business and public business is our business. It may be time for educators to condition themselves to explain everything they do.

*

> Our paper strives to be a true reflection of the percentage of the tax dollar going for schools, both from the standpoint of prominence and editorial stand.

*

> We consider any area of the tax magnitude and philosophical implications of education as news. We are in the business of informing and entertaining readers. Education deserves our attention on both counts. What tax money is

> spent for and what education is provided for children is of general interest. What teachers and children do in schools and on playgrounds often has considerable feature interest.
>
> *
>
> . . . I believe our only policy is to print all the education news which we believe might interest a sizeable portion of our readership. I think it fair to say this policy includes printing any controversy in which any group -- student, faculty or parent -- is at odds with school administrators. In these instances, we try to print both sides IF we can get school authorities to talk. They often want to maintain a stuffy silence on the whole affair.
>
> *
>
> The paper's editorial policy is for basic education, academic excellence, and the educational development of every individual to his limits. The paper has been critical of educational "frills" and "soft" education. The wife of the editor and publisher is a vice-president of The Council for Basic Education.
>
> *
>
> The editorial policy of the paper has always been to support school bond issues, most tax overrides and salary increases for teachers and other school employees. But it is a Republican paper and is opposed to federal aid, particularly to education . . . .

Time magazine notwithstanding, it is clear that, to some extent at least, newsmen and schoolmen spoke at cross purposes. Before we return to newsmen's views of their communications problems, we shall report some findings and our respondents' descriptions of the state of the field of education reporting.

The state of the field

The prevalent view is that the rise in the visibility and significance of education reporting parallelled an increase in the number of reporters and editors specializing in education news. Figures compiled biannually by _The Working Press of the Nation_, a directory published by the National Research Bureau, Chicago, Ill., indicate that the number of such assignments has indeed risen. But there is no evidence that the _proportion_ of education assignments has increased in relation to all editorial assignments reported.

Available figures on daily newspaper editorial employees holding education, science, stamps, and society assignments, and the amount of space devoted to listing all editorial assignments in the directory can be seen on Appendix II-A-8, Table 9. From these figures it appears that while the number of education assignments reported doubled from 1950 through 1963, so has the space devoted to listing all editorial assignments.

Reader interest in stamp collecting has attracted about half the number of special editorial assignments given to education. Science reporters outnumbered stamp editors slightly since 1955. Society editors were more than twice as numerous as school reporters or as science and stamp editors combined. The general pattern of assignments remained fairly stable.

Assignment

The New England study (Gross, 1956) found that one out of three large dailies (over 20,000 circulation) and one out of seven small dailies assigned a reporter to education news. The Working Press of the Nation directory never listed more than one in five dailies assigning a reporter to school or education news, whether part or full time. Responses to our own inquiry showed that those who hold some sort of an education reporting title on large daily papers across the country spend an average of 75 percent of their time actually working on education news.

Part time. Most newspaper men and women who cover education for the American daily press are general assignment reporters or work the "school beat" under the direction of the City Desk. Only a handful of newspapers can boast of an education "editor." "Were I really an education 'editor,'" a big city staffer wrote us, "I probably would have answered your letter before this, for I would have had a secretary to do the typing. As it is, with no assistance and a big beat to cover, I neglect my correspondence."

"You flatter me with the education editor title," reflected a Texas newsman. "I have been called many things in connection with school reporting, but never 'editor.' There is no such animal on our paper. Coverage of the public school system here is on a beat assignment basis. I have the beat and I like it."

"Any title sounds pretty silly in my case," said a young woman reporter for a large midwestern daily. "I spend part of my working day writing obituaries, taking office notes, rewriting police items. Our city staff is shorthanded and younger members and women are assigned to what we refer to as 'the junk.'"

Much of the time actually spent on school and education news is also devoted to "the junk" -- education style. Any reporter whose name appears on one of several lists of specialized newspaper personnel receives hundreds of releases, publications, personal and organizational publicity items a week from national, state and local sources. "Too much of what I do is to open envelopes and process news releases," said one school reporter, echoing the sentiments of many. "If I had an assistant," commented another, "or at least a filing cabinet to keep all this mail until I have a chance to open it, I could cover some news myself. But newspapers don't seem to be organized that way."

A part-time school reporter expressed a common feeling when she said:

> One of my worst tasks probably pays off in reader attention. That is compiling our "Student Honors" column, in which we list every scholarship and award won by every student in our area that we know about. Some of these items come from parents and some from schools and colleges. This is a dreadful job -- checking all these names and addresses and telephoning scores of people to get the information they should have sent us in the first place.

Another education writer put it this way:

> The most irksome part of my job concerns the countless little chores -- the one-paragraph pieces that need to be written, the daily mail, the secretarial chores that the reporter must handle. Such work consumes perhaps an hour every day. Yet in the trivia there is occasionally a nugget that makes the time well spent.

The following brief descriptions indicate the range of general statements on the duties of a part-time school beat assignment:

> The education situation here is clouded by the fact that I am often pulled off the beat to handle general assignments. That means we do not, even yet, have a full time education beat. I hope that will change as time goes on. I believe the editors here would agree that education ought to be full time but this is less than an ideal world.

*

> In recent years our paper, like many others, has increased the amount of education news it prints . . . . But this has come about more through using wire copy and hand-out material than through assigning a reporter to spend time in the field. For instance we printed this spring for the first time in many years the complete list of graduates from all city high schools, private and parochial as well as public. I leave it to you to assess the effect on the reader's image of education. However I am at least nominally assigned to education, and have acquired a little familiarity with some problems . . . . I also write features on individuals, special enterprises and so on, but I dislike the "Kindly Old Teacher Retires" sort of story, and mine tend to be about college more than lower levels.

*

> I really work most of the time on general assignments. But I cover all meetings of the city board of education -- although not those of the scarcely less important

> other places which we serve as the major newspaper -- and I receive a flood of second-class mail and publicity releases which usually produce four or five little stories every day. As major education stories come along I am sometimes assigned to them and sometimes not, depending on the whim of the desk, which is largely controlled by whether or not I happen to be in the city room at the time.

"Horizontal" vs. "vertical." Whether full or part time, the school beat can be covered on what some of our respondents characterized as "horizontal" or "vertical" basis. One staff member of a metropolitan daily explained the "horizontal" system as splitting the responsibility for education in the following way:

> I and one other reporter cover the city schools, eight local colleges and a few specific assignments outside this area such as the State Board of Education and the larger national conventions. But suburban schools are covered by the suburban editor and his staff, Catholic schools by the church editor, and state and national education news by the state and telegraph editors. There is some overlapping and I do stories elsewhere in the state when they involve something special, such as a new idea in curriculum or building. PTA news is handled by the women's department, which also does a weekly page for teen-agers that often includes school items.

A North Carolina newsman wrote that "as feature editor I find I come closest to serving the functions of an education editor and for reasons not fully clear to me I am carried on many mailing lists under that title." Then he gave the following description of the school news operation:

> A reporter on the city staff reports activities and actions of the city school board; a reporter on the county beat covers the county school board; one of the political writers covers the State Department of Public Instruction and the State Board of Higher Education; and every member must expect to deal with subjects of educational interest.
>
> The arrangement exists because schools and education are involved in nearly every phase of North Carolina life, from Police Department assignments of school patrol officers and county commissioner discussions of school taxes to school proposals in the Legislature and educational policy statements at the Governor's Press Conference.
>
> Consequently, we have no single education editor. All of our writers and all of our editors must be at least part-time education specialists.

There is a feeling on some newspapers that editorial policy is more effectively maintained if there is no centralized, specialized, or "especially dignified" function delegated to a rank-and-file staff member. This policy significance of school news was stressed in the response of the chief editorial writer and "policy" reporter of a border state daily:

> On our paper, education gets a good deal of space. The editor wants daily coverage of school superintendents (city and county). He wants frequent visits to schools, coverage of PTA Council, Better Schools committees, etc. We editorialize fairly frequently on school matters. But we have no "education editor" since it is not our policy to encourage either reporters, the general public or the special segments of it they deal with to consider the men on the job as especially dignified or specialized individuals. . . .
>
> It is not exactly a consequence of my education coverage that I am chief editorial writer (a matter of fact, not title), and also this newspaper's "policy" reporter -- but it surely is a factor in my having become that -- or those -- things.

A newspaper editor whose "crusade" against educational practices and methods in a Western state inspired legislative and personnel changes replied that "We do not have an education editor as such, but devote a great deal of attention and space to education news . . . . We conduct surveys from time to time and run series of articles on teaching methods, text books in use, and so forth. Several years ago we conducted such an intensive crusade that the state legislature, at our suggestion, named a committee which devoted two years to studying education methods generally and made recommendations for many changes and improvements."

A growing number of newspapers, however, "consider continuity of coverage by one reporter important in fairness to the sources," commented one old-timer on the education beat. The advantages of the "vertical" system were explained by a staff member of a Virginia daily as follows:

> Our education coverage was set up on a vertical basis in 1957. This system is far superior to the previous system. Before, one person covered city schools plus some other agencies, someone else covered the state department of education plus some other agencies and so on. Five years ago, I was named education writer and given the responsibility of covering education on all levels. This has the advantage of giving a person a much more comprehensive view of the field he's covering plus centering a special interest in the broad field of education to which he is assigned. An interesting illustration: I often find a local school board discussing at a meeting some new state policy handed down by the State Board of Education. Quite often I know more about the matter

> than the local school board does, simply because I had the added opportunity of hearing the new policy discussed when it was formulated at the State Board of Education meeting, an advantage not had by the local school board members. Naturally this makes for more enlightened education coverage.

Full time. The full-time education reporter has, of course, more time to devote to his beat. He also finds that the more his responsibility for "covering education" becomes centralized and formalized, the more his beat grows to frustrating or practically unmanageable proportions. This is especially true for metropolitan reporters working under the pressures of the institutional clamor for visibility, the competition for space, and the rivalry of other papers. "I see my job," wrote one such reporter, "as encompassing the public, private, and parochial schools, the suburban schools, and the many colleges and universities in this area . . . . Being an afternoon paper, however, we must make room for 'breaking' stories during the day. As a result, education stories of less than pressing moment are not infrequently 'killed' out of the paper's late editions."

"This newspaper has never had a full-time education writer," stated another. "I've been doing the job on a full-time basis for the past several months. You may be interested to know that the other daily in town also assigned a full-time education writer for the first time." Then he described his functions as follows:

> My function is to cover the five colleges in the city, the junior college, the State University (about 150 miles away) and other colleges in the state.
>
> I also cover the Board of Public Education, which educates 73,000 students a year; the County School Board, which exercises some control over the 76 systems outside the city but within the county; schools in the Roman Catholic Diocese here (56 high schools and 235 grade schools), etc.

Others described the typical duties of a full-time education reporter as follows:

> He is expected to keep track of new developments, breaking news stories or continuing controversies in schools and colleges in the local area and to write what he believes to be the appropriate stories. He is also expected to write any features, analytical pieces or series which he or the city editor or managing editor believes timely and interesting. This is essentially "covering a beat."
>
> *
>
> The "education editor" on our paper functions as a newspaper reporter. Education is covered like any other news beat, by attending school board meeting, public hearings,

> etc., and by frequent contacts with school officials. Developments in school finance, construction, personnel, student affairs and curriculum are covered as they break. Feature stories are written as they seem appropriate. Two weekly features are a page of news of high school activities written by students with editorial supervision during the school year and a column of PTA news.

Status

Fred M. Hechinger, education editor of the New York Times once commented that "There has been almost an inferiority complex on the part of people assigned to education writing. This was particularly true among men who had grown up with the idea that education is a woman's field. I should say that most of this feeling has been done away with because of the new importance and recognition given to education . . ." (McGonigle, 1960)

Newsmen's responses to our question about "status" indicated some agreement with Hechinger's views, but also a wide range of differences. The following are indicative of the range of opinions:

> When I heard that I was to become education "editor" (really reporter) I was not too happy, for I had been on the federal court house beat and enjoyed it. But a fellow staff member told me that my predecessor once removed had been top man on the staff and I ought to be happy and proud.

*

> The school reporter for our paper has, I believe, a responsible task but little status, at least in the news room.

*

> As far as any specially recognized news room rank goes, there is little status connected with the school beat. As far as recognizing the importance of school coverage and giving the reporter free play with the beat, there is much.

*

> I wish my status was a little higher, but I suppose a job consists of what a person makes it and I hope to prove that school news deserves a good deal of attention from a capable reporter.

*

> I would guess that the status of education reporters has risen since October, 1957, even if the quality of their reporting has not. Since sputnik, Americans have acted as

> though education were just invented. This inevitably has put the education writer in a good spot.

*

> The position does not carry a difference in pay over general assignment reporters. However, it is a beat on which the reporter can exercise ingenuity and imagination, thereby making himself of more value to his newspaper and earning rewards on merit.

*

> I have noticed that over the period of years I have been given more latitude in covering education assignments and have been allowed to make a number of out-of-town trips to cover education conventions, conferences, etc. This is a sign in recognition of the importance of education coverage.

*

> The status of the education editor seems to me to be fairly high, at least among educators and members of the public interested in education. As for others, I just don't know. The management of our paper has a strong interest in education . . . . So I believe that within the newspaper organization the status is relatively high. But the trappings that go with the job seem inadequate here. On our paper education is a one-man responsibility. I rather like it that way, but sometimes I think an assistant would be helpful in such a big field. (I had one on the back-to-school supplement.)

"Status" in the news room appeared to increase with the length of time the position has been in existence and the tenure of the reporter holding the position. There were, however, relatively few "old timers." The average tenure on the job was about 2½ years. Half of all education reporters responding have been in their position one year or less.

Although the steps of the "status hierarchy" in educational reporting are ill-defined, there is little doubt that at the top sits the prestigious education editor of long tenure at an authoritative metropolitan daily paper such as the New York Times. He has a small staff, a private cubicle, regularly assigned space in the paper, and a role in policy-making. He confers with the City Desk in making daily assignments to cover local school news. He considers his own basic task to be the interpretation of major ideas, trends, developments in education.

Hard news, local angle

The "hard news, local angle" formula used on most American papers tends to emphasize community and reader interest and service. This makes the reporting of national developments highly sporadic and selective, unless some local "tie-in" can be found:

> We pursue what I would call a "hard local news" policy on educational subjects. This means first of all that we cover . . . all committee meetings and full board meetings . . . . We try to maintain some surveillance of the school boards of suburban communities and common school districts in the metropolitan area, and give them highlight coverage. We give cordial treatment to story suggestions volunteered by the schools, colleges and universities -- expansion programs, new techniques, features on faculty and students, etc. -- but we do not cultivate the field regularly to develop such material. In the realm of "pure" education -- papers, studies, new books, "foreign" convention discussions and actions on the philosophy, technology and other generalities of education -- we cover only to the extent that such developments get themselves into the wire service file (unless there is some local application).

*

> While I keep track of national developments in education, I rarely report on them unless there is a local angle. The exception to this rule is found in our special "News and Views" section of the Sunday paper. Here I do pontificate on occasion. In the last six months I have written News and Views pieces on the great mathematics revolution in U.S. schools and on the increasingly vocal conservative students of the Goldwater persuasion on college campuses across the country. I also did a N & V piece on the meat-and-potatoes Rickover-style schools in Washington, D.C.

*

> This local-application kick may seem terribly parochial at first blush, but after looking at it a second or third time -- or living with it as I have -- it begins to make sense in the context of a metropolitan newspaper with a snug newshole and all the world to tell about.

Selection and qualifications

"A snug newshole and all the world to tell about" puts the emphasis on selection. Quick choices have to be made from a multitude of competing and often conflicting voices, interests, appeals, and pressures. Kay Maxwell of the Hartford (Conn.) Times wrote in the 1963 Gannetteer symposium that the education reporter

> talks to an audience ranging from engineering executive fathers studying for advanced degrees to poverty-stricken Negro mothers deeply concerned about their children's opportunities . . . .

> Private colleges, the National Education Association, manufacturers of audio-visual equipment, the Council for Basic Education and the Carnegie Corporation deluge the reporter's desk with mail.
>
> Somebody says, "We ought to have a story on that new community college out in Brightville." And somebody else says, "How about investigating correspondence schools?"
>
> Walking down the street the reporter meets an acquaintance, who calls his attention to the large number of Africans studying at Hillsdale Secretarial School. At an educational television meeting, he is urged to take a look at the low state of training for sewing machine operators . . . .
>
> Always, the education reporter faces the problem, "How in this melange of differing needs, demands and desires, do you decide upon priorities?"

Miss Maxwell did not answer the questions she raised. But studies of content and of newspaper work suggest and our interviews confirm that within the broad outlines of journalistic convention and management policy the reporter responds to the social structure and pressures of the newsroom.* The newsroom, with its own code of conduct, cultivates the proverbial "nose for news," an intangible but real order of priorities. Knowledge of that order of priorities, and skill in applying the patterns of selection inherent in them, are among the chief qualifications of the reporter. He is warned not to get "too close to news sources" lest he adopts a system of priorities more in conformity with that of the news source than of the newspaper. A clash of "news values" can be hard on the reporter as well as on the educator.

> The easy way out [wrote one reporter] is not to write controversial stories or the kind of stories that make anyone look bad. I try not to take that way. I've only had the education job for 2½ years, however. I suspect that after ten years, if I last that long, it will be more difficult for me to write the controversial article than it is now. I will probably be more inclined to play it safe and report what the educators say without attempting an independent appraisal of the kind of job they are doing.

What do reporters regard as qualifications for making "an independent appraisal" of the work of educators? "Always to know something about the school system that the superintendent does not know," suggested one education writer. "Your ability to extract the guts from, say, the school board president's laudatory address," claimed a second. Others wrote:

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*Cf. e.g. Walter Gieber, "Two Communicators of the News: A Study of The Roles of Sources and Reporters." Social Forces, 39:76-83, October, 1960.

> One of the pitfalls a specialist must avoid is to think he is an educator because he deals with education or a scientist because he is a science editor. His viewpoint, his allegiance, and his motivation must be those of an outsider. Relationships with educators, for an education editor, must be on a friendly, not fraternal, basis.

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> The main qualification, probably, is a really consuming interest in schools -- the kind that combines plenty of sympathy for the hard-pressed schoolmen with a generous skepticism about the opinion he usually has . . . that he's doing the best he can under the circumstances.

Most newsmen feel that teaching experience or professional work in education is not a necessary qualification for taking an objective and critical view of the schools. Most would agree with the reporter who wrote that "The non-teacher is likely to approach the subject much more objectively."

The main dissenters were those who have themselves had some teaching or other professional experience in education. Such reporters numbered less than one-third of those responding to our inquiry, and a probably much smaller proportion of all who work as education "specialists" on daily newspapers. Even some of these feel that "too much" experience in education would, as one of them put it "give a man the classroom teachers' point of view so completely that he could never recover the average citizen's outlook."

> There are teachers and administrators /commented another reporter/ who feel that only they are competent to pass on what the curriculum contains, that the layman -- and the newspaper reader -- should take their Olympian judgments without cavil. And if you want a real tangle, just question the commonly accepted premise that all teachers are underpaid, challenge the single-salary system or look askance at tenure.

The qualification of sympathy (but not empathy) demands detachment from the "news source" and loyalty to the value system of the press. "No sacred cows" is a favorite saying of newsmen. Implicit in these views is the assumption that the reporter's job is to emulate and cultivate the outlook of the average "citizen and taxpayer" whose "right to know" he guards. His main qualifications include the ability to do that simply, compellingly, and within the pattern of news value priorities outlined by the policy of the management and enforced by the ethos of the newsroom.

Newsmen and schoolmen

Generations of educational administrators have been trained to fit into the scheme of community power of which the press is both an organ and an interpreter. But the fit has never been snug. School public relations has developed in response to the need of the schools to adjust to the requirements of the press, ease the friction and tension built into the machinery of organized contacts between the two institutions, and develop alternative ways of reaching the public.

School public relations

School public relations became a visible part of the educational scene during the "efficiency era" of the twenties.* The School Public Relations Association was formed in the depression year of 1935. The movement came to full flowering during the troublesome years following World War II.

The Encyclopedia of Educational Research, for example, listed four studies under "Public Relations" in 1941. By 1950, six pages were devoted to such studies. In the same year, the National Education Association granted departmental status to the School Public Relations Association.

Most school and college public relations services and information programs were first set up for tax elections, bond votes, building fund campaigns, or as the consequence of their failures. As school districts consolidated and educational institutions grew larger, their need for public information (and their ability to provide it as a specialized service) became more continuous and diversified. Educational public relations became a recognized specialty in the field of institutional publicity and fund-raising.

The largest educational units now have public information departments and staffs. Most sizeable institutions employ at least one person preparing publicity and maintaining liaison with the press. The ability to "handle the press" and cause it to "project a favorable image" is, of course, a prime requirement for successful school administrators. More and more teachers are also called upon to act as "news sources" as the classroom and laboratory acquire greater news value.

In selecting public information personnel, the schools face the same problem as newspapers do in making an education assignment: should the person be primarily newsman or schoolman? The typical resolution of the problems is the same on both sides, although the schools usually insist on some educational background. But the task is to make the institution and its aims and problems visible in the community via a bridge of communications on which the press controls the traffic. Newspaper experience, the ability to get along with the press, and familiarity with the values and rules of the news game are essential in educational -- or any other -- public relations.

Most education reporters find school public information services indispensable to their work -- at least the routine part. Although all complain about the volume of press releases and "junk" pouring in to editorial offices from all over the country, they find the stream of information from schools and colleges in their circulation area helpful to their coverage. "Professional public relations people in education have a sense of news value," commented a Seattle area reporter. "Professional educators," he added, "often don't recognize news when they see them." Another respondent wrote:

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*Cf. Reynolds, 1923; Callahan, 1962, pp. 223 f.

> The colleges, without exception, have public relations people and so does the city school system. I work closely with them. In fact, I depend on them for the routine stories. They frequently suggest feature stories. And I find them valuable, to start from at least, when a major story breaks.

One of our respondents thought that while the outlying districts should send their news to the paper, "it is unnecessary and even wasteful for a big-city system to have public relations people because the press already gives close scrutiny to its affairs." But the only complete dissent from the general opinion was this statement:

> As for press contacts with local school systems -- they are deplorable . . . . The most obvious fault is in the public relations people the schools hire. They are, with a few outstanding exceptions, inexperienced, inept and inefficient.

School board coverage

School boards and other governing bodies of public educational institutions derive their authority from the state and not, as most people believe, from the local citizenry which elects them. However, as a large share of school support comes from local resources, most states have delegated much of their constitutional responsibility for education to local school boards.

The basic tasks of these boards is to see that schools are run on a financial and administrative basis the local tax and power structure can support. But whether the board's policy will get community support, and how much, depends partly on how its actions and policies are presented and interpreted in the community.

Most board members feel that boards have the right to arrive at their policies and present them to the community as they see fit. This usually means a minimum of public controversy or open disagreement among board members. They feel that little serious business can be done in public meetings; that controversies split community support and endanger the all-important tax election, bond issue, or legislative appropriation. Except when a dissident minority wants to mobilize public support for its cause, board members prefer to settle their disagreement in private and present a united front at open meetings.

Newsmen, on the other hand, jealously guard the public's "right to know" -- what the press wants it to know. Newspapers are usually willing to cooperate on their own terms. These terms include full knowledge of board deliberations and the right to decide what is "responsible reporting" in the "public interest."

"If the school administration is not open, the newspaper won't have the background knowledge to be responsible even if it wants to," wrote Wilma Morrison (1953), an early crusader for opening up school board deliberations to full press scrutiny. "Besides," she added, "the schools have no alternative except to cooperate with the press. Putting it baldly, the press can hurt the schools but the schools have no effective club over the press."

None except "secrecy" -- which often backfires in a barrage of adverse publicity. An education reporter for a big-city daily described it this way:

> Although my own relations with the publicists employed by the Board of education are good, the board itself operates in ways that destroy public confidence. Its monthly public meetings are a joke. Everything is neatly arranged in advance. The board meets privately to decide what it will do in public. It then goes through its paces like seals in a circus act. Its public meetings are a complete waste of time. There is never an exchange of ideas about important educational issues, local, state or national. The board's budget-making procedures are equally undemocratic. It prepares a budget, decides exactly how each dollar will be spent and then, at the last minute, holds a public hearing at which all citizens are invited to speak. The board sits back patiently listening to the taxpayers. Then, after everyone has had his "say," the board goes ahead and adopts its budget as originally prepared, totally ignoring the recommendations of the citizenry. The board has never made public a long-range building program. The first the public hears of a proposed new building is when the deal is all set and virtually unstoppable.

Another education writer complained that the University Trustees

> have been trying in a half-hearted way to placate us, but we do not feel yet that they have accepted the fact that the public has a right to know what is done in a public, tax-supported institution. Our specific quarrel is with the closed meetings of the committees of the Trustees (really committees of the whole) at which most of the business is conducted. The open meetings are mostly formalities at which the performance of individual board members is far from impressive -- perhaps because they have talked things out in advance. Well, this is an old complaint. We've had much to say about it editorially, and until there is a real reform I doubt if we'll ever feel completely happy about the university.

Rules and customs of board meeting press coverage, and board-press relationships in general, vary widely across the country. The following responses indicate some reporters' views on the subject.

> Our school district follows the policy of advance notification and background information for any major story. I am frequently invited to attend committee meetings

of the school board to hear reports of staff committees and report on them as I see fit.

This close relationship is of considerable assistance to our paper. A year ago last spring, for example, the school board refused a request that the press be barred while the board discussed salary demands with the local AFT chapter.

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Concerning relations generally between the press and the board, I believe there is much suspicion and distrust of newspapers on the part of educators. This is not all misplaced by any means. There has been irresponsible and reckless reporting of school news. A couple of years ago there were rumors of a $300,000 shortage in the school board budget. The business manager was hospitalized and unable to explain. A newspaper got one of the school board members to say that the reported shortage would be investigated. This gave the paper an eight-column headline about suspected skulduggery. It could have checked out the report and found it baseless but that would have taken patience -- and there would have been no story. The episode hurt press-school relations. On another occasion, the school board announced a $20 million improvement program. The afternoon papers got the news "break." The board did not specify how the program should be financed but listed half a dozen possible taxes, any one or more of which might be considered as revenue raisers. The morning paper ignored the broad plans for improving the school system and said in big headlines that the school board was proposing six new taxes. Aside from actually misleading the public, the paper in question seemed to be adopting a spiteful attitude because it had not had the major story first.

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We cover all meetings, have excellent relations with some members, realize the inherent weakness of part-time citizen boards, but wouldn't have it any other way. Our communities, long boss-ridden, suffer from a tradition of avoidance statements of personal conviction by individual members of all boards, not just the school boards. But that is passing. Both local boards -- especially the city board -- greatly abuse the privilege of "executive sessions."

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Thanks to former education reporters, all school board meetings are open to the press except those in which prospective new superintendents are discussed or interviewed.

> We cover all board meetings, of course; we also sit in when the board has executive sessions on such things as whether to give a high school principal a year's leave of absence to head an army school system in Europe. Sometimes board members become irked at our reporting some of these proceedings; but tension has been minor, and relations on the whole are excellent and on a first-name basis.
>
> The situation is similar at the State Board of Higher Education. We do not sit in on meetings at which possible new college presidents are discussed and interviewed; otherwise everything is open to us (although the board occasionally pulls a fast one by meeting on the telephone to discuss forcing the retirement of an over-age college president, for instance; I can hardly complain about this). The biggest problem at the state board is getting background and getting things in perspective. It wades through such a mass of material once in six weeks that I sometimes feel as though I had been dropped into the middle of the ocean, and I have found that many paid staff members feel bewildered, too. However, I always have been able to get the background from somebody . . . .

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School board press coverage is, then, a sensitive area of routine relationships. It touches upon basic institutional rights and interests of the schools and the press, and exposes differences in role and position in the community power structure. The pressure toward fuller press scrutiny of board deliberations may only have pushed the conduct of board business farther back into the privacy of homes, clubs, telephone contacts, and social gatherings. But, on the surface at least, schools have no alternative except to cooperate with the press. The New England survey (Gross, 1956), found 43 percent of superintendents inviting the press, at least occasionally, even to board meetings closed to the public.

But the study also found that nearly all large and most small school boards do hold closed meetings, and that there is considerable disagreement between newsmen and schoolmen about the kind of business, if any, that should be considered in "executive session." The basic issue is rooted in the nature of the relationship between private and public institutions in a private-enterprise democracy. It is a question of which set of institutional purposes should determine the selection, timing, and treatment of information the public has "a right to know." This basic issue also underlies most problems in personal professional relations between newsmen and schoolmen.

Professional contacts; some problem areas

Newsmen were asked what they considered to be major problem areas in their personal contacts with schoolmen. One education reporter, writing from the Southwest, listed nearly all of them:

> (1) Overcoming the fears of certain school administrators that newspapers can't be trusted to report accurately news of education. (2) Dealing with the "ivory tower boys" who haven't come down to earth since they began their professional education work. These are in a minority, but they are hard to deal with. They either don't make sense or they can't express themselves so anyone outside the profession (and few within it) can understand them. (3) The tendency of entrenched school leaders to think of their school systems as their own little countries. Too many superintendents want to play God. Sometimes they need a little jolt to remind them they are paid out of public funds and have a responsibility to the public. (4) Lack of news sense on the part of many school administrators. They flood the paper with junk news and ignore really interesting copy. (5) A tendency in some districts to withhold information to which the public has a right.

Many others mentioned similar complaints. All of these seemed to echo the major grievances reported in the New England (Gross, 1956) study of school-press relations. Most of these charges can be grouped into three problem areas: (1) newsmen's feeling of secretiveness, lack of confidence on the part of schoolmen; (2) problems of occupational jargon, obscure or abstract language; and (3) different conceptions of "news value."

Secretiveness, lack of confidence. Most newsmen level charges of secretiveness, timidity, cowardice at schoolmen. "Generally," wrote one respondent, "reporters take the side of teachers, but the timidity you meet is discouraging. It is easy to develop the attitude that 'If they don't care about themselves, their profession, their schools, why should I?' But," he added, "this is an attitude you have to fight with the realization of 'Would I speak up?' And, in all honesty, you don't know."

Following are some other characteristic comments.

> The major problem in my work as education writer is getting school authorities to discuss matters they deem harmful if published.

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> Greatest source of irritation is reluctance of school teachers to talk without clearance from authorities.

*

> Our biggest problem is the tendency of too many school officials to be secretive about school matters and deny access to information which the public has a right to know . . . . However, they usually gain nothing but the paper's ill will and suspicion and -- if it's a significant incident -- an editorial blast for their actions.

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> Teachers and administrators have been infected by one of the national diseases -- the seeking of security at all costs. The pursuit of this state is more important than becoming involved in community or educational controversies, it is more important than the expression of opinions that may be contrary to those more popularly held, it is more important than self respect, than speaking up about matters about which they have special knowledge.

*

Secretiveness is often attributed to fear and lack of confidence. "The problem," said one reporter, "is with the teacher and administrator who has no understanding of the newspaper business and is afraid that even a sneeze will be misconstrued." "Educators seem to have a reluctance to work closely with the press," remarked another. "I don't want to be anyone's public relations agency but neither do I want to be a 'hatchet man.' There ought to be a middle ground."

The middle ground is hard to find when the boundaries keep shifting and the rules of the game are not too clearly or equitably defined. One of the most valuable assets of school public relations is the cultivation of personal relationships with reporters. "The school system has a publicity man," wrote one respondent, "who feeds us tips on activities that seem interesting." Press-conscious administrators were reported to let newsmen in on potentially controversial information if, on the whole, they had a sympathetic press.

> A recent example /wrote one reporter/ was the "kicking upstairs" of a high school principal who was felt to be doing an inadequate job. The superintendent discussed the case with me, fully disclosing the reasons for the move . . . We decided not to stir up public controversy for controversy's sake. The ultimate action was written up as a simple change of assignment.

> The first step in taking over any beat /wrote another respondent/ should be to establish rapport with school sources. This was done by demonstrating that education news can be reported accurately, by observing confidences, and by taking a calm rather than a crusading attitude toward public schools. This is not to say that we have not been critical, but we have attempted to criticize constructively and fairly.

"Confidence" on terms dictated by the press is a calculated risk from which the schools have much to gain, or, on occasion, to lose. But the alternative leaves schools open to the charge of secretiveness which, with its implications of power-hunger and mismanagement, few public institutions can afford.

Educational jargon. Only one complaint is more widespread than that educators do not like to give straightforward answers to straightforward questions. That is the charge that they are unable to do so. "Teachers as a class are amazingly inarticulate," wrote the education writer for a large East Coast daily. "Few can discuss curriculum, teaching methods, etc., at least with the press, in concrete terms. They soon drift into generalities they learned at teacher's college." Another reporter explained:

> Reporters are not educators. The purpose of the press and of the schools is not always the same. One major disagreement is language. We cannot report educational developments in the educators' language. It will mean nothing to anyone but an educator. We need the type of educator who will be willing to paraphrase, to explain to the press what he is doing without worrying about words like "core" and "education of the whole child."

The battle of words may be symptomatic of deeper irritations. In the responses of education reporters, complaints about "jargon" revealed a variety of underlying assumptions: generalities learned at teacher's colleges inhibit articulate discussion of teaching on "concrete terms"; educational jargon is a subterfuge, another instance of professional "secretiveness"; the talk of teachers is a ritual which hides all thought; it is an attempt to conceal ideas which are obscure, controversial, expensive or all of these; and, finally, the opaqueness of educators indicates indifference or even contempt for the press and thus for the public.

There may be some truth in any folklore about a profession. The lingo of the newsroom could be as incomprehensible to teachers as the jargon of the educationist seems even to reporters "specializing" in education. Professional "educationese" may well be uncommonly vacuous and pompous doubletalk, although the ceremonial, administrative, philosophical, or technical prose of other fields has not yet been subjected to comparative analysis, or -- unlike that of education -- to popular vote.

News values. School publicity people "flood the paper with junk news and ignore really interesting copy," wrote one respondent. "The biggest problem," said another, "has been to develop an awareness among school people of news and feature values. I have noticed also that they are sometimes at sea in knowing how to handle controversial matters to the best of their advantage."

The two types of complaints about "news values" again reflect a divergence of institutional goals. Successful school administration requires visibility but low or no controversy. "Good news copy" gives high visibility to controversy or to other elements which may lead to a conflict of values between school and press.

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Reporters' complaints about "junk news" may seem trivial, but they reflect a widespread, and vexing problem. Many newsmen take the position of the reporter on a midwestern daily who said:

> The school news that comes in is too routine, like "Teachers organize volley ball team; play every Wednesday." We throw away most releases, especially from the colleges. We also get a great deal of commercial publicity about desks, cleaning supplies, workbooks, etc. I dump them all in the wastebasket even if I must occasionally miss something. It is just too much to open and read.

Wire services are, of course, hard hit with publicity clamoring for national attention. An education reporter for a major news service had this to say:

> I receive about fifty releases a day. Most of them are terrible. There is too much emphasis on grants, appointments, organizational business. Not enough on ideas in education. Most of the news I get has some financial meaning.
>
> Also, the releases are not selective. Once somebody gets on the list he seems to get all the releases from an institution by air mail. This includes such things as "high school band to play on Saturday." I use about one item in a hundred. These details do not tell the story of education.

The reason for all this is, of course, the organizational pressure for routine visibility. The publication of a certain amount of "junk news" is part of the local service functions of a newspaper. Some papers try to handle this flood in ways that do not swamp their facilities for independent coverage. One reporter described a typical solution:

> Because the education writer is flooded with miscellaneous meeting notices, minor items and stories of interest to a limited number of people, we were for a long time concerned over how to cope with this problem. We now handle this type of information in a column that runs from one to four times a week, depending on the quantity of material. We require persons and organizations desiring publication of such news to write the information and mail it to the paper, thus saving time on telephone calling. In this way we boil down a lot of "junk news" into a short space and run it all in the same spot in the paper. In this way we're able to give some space to a wide range of organizations and individuals without loading up the pages of the paper with news of limited interest.

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Other types of news value conflict, not so easily resolved, are rooted in deeper differences of interest and standpoint between the two institutions. They usually revolve around the newswriter's need for social and occupational typing (or "stereotyping"), and the newspaper's vs. the school's conception of "balanced coverage."

Social typing is, of course, a shortcut to meaning, even if not always to understanding. An occupational, racial, or professional tag next to a name in a news item is the simplest and most common form of social typing. The more incongruous or provocative the combination, the more "news value" it has. A man charged with vagrancy is a common item on the police blotter. Human reproduction is the subject of many books. But "Teacher Picked up on Skid Row" or "Sex Books in School Library" are almost irresistible headline possibilities.

An education reporter recalled this incident at a girls' vocational high school:

> A neighbor called to report a "race fight" in front of the school. Had the principal refused to talk with us, we would have had to talk with students, with those who lived across from the school and with other witnesses to check the story. But the principal did talk with us, telling us of the background of the situation and the reason the two girls had started a fight, a reason which as I recall had nothing to do with race. What might have ended up as a page one story, ended up as two or three paragraphs on an inside page with no mention of race.

The story was told to illustrate the importance of schoolmen confiding in newsmen. But it also indicates something about news values. Social typing alone, in the absence of other information about motivation, can give a story of conflict special significance. Any brawl can become a front-page "race riot" if the participants are not all white. Lacking social typing possibilities, the story loses much of its news value. But the school principal might wonder why such a fight should be news at all.

A related type of news value conflict between newsmen and schoolmen results from different conceptions of "balanced coverage." Something "good" is often routine news; something "bad" may well be "hot copy." A little of the latter spices the bland flow of announcements, awards, speeches. But schoolmen object.

> The main problem in dealing with schoolmen [wrote one education writer] is the complaint: "Your paper never gives us any publicity about the worthwhile things we do, but jumps on every little controversy and blows it up into a big deal." This is generally an unenlightened view. The people who make it are invited, as a rule, to come and look at our clipping file and see for themselves how much space in the paper went to news they would call "positive" and how much to "negative." I don't think anyone has ever taken us up on the invitation.

Those involved in the making of news either as subjects or as reporters know that any "balance" is a matter of selection and policy. What may appear to newsmen the "proper balance" may seem to schoolmen just what keeps them off-balance in the community. Gross (1956) found that overemphasis on "bad" or "sensational" news was the educators' major grievance against the press.

This "unenlightened view" of schoolmen exasperates some reporters. One education writer discussed his irritation at length:

> As to contacts with education people, I dislike to generalize, but I don't mind remarking that I have been offended by the sneering and contemptuous attitude of some college and a few high school teachers toward newspapers. It doesn't seem to occur to them that we could sneer even more effectively in print at their ignorance of the commercial world that we and nearly all our readers inhabit -- though I try not to do so. Often their lack of knowledge of mass media and realpolitik is abysmal, and I think they bring the "ivory tower" criticism on themselves.

Then, in a less righteous vein, the same writer gave an illustration of pressures affecting some newsmen's views of the "proper balance."

> A way of describing what seems to me a major problem in dealing with education in the newspaper is to say that there are too few villains in the schools. I am convinced that one of the reasons that newspapers are so filled with crime, Communism and corruption is that the villains are so easily identified in such stories -- like the bad guys in black shirts in TV Westerns. Anything that does not lend itself to such treatment is correspondingly poor newspaper material. The best approach I have been able to find is to think of education as "men in white" stuff, valiant fighters against the dragon of ignorance, etc. But I am afraid most readers don't regard social forces as very satisfactory villains, and it is surprising how few education stories have in them sex, danger or easy money, which are other themes we can handle well . . . . It is easy enough to say, of course, that we should just run a more serious and informational newspaper. But when I came on the paper we were doing that, and losing money. Now we are much more sensational, disinclined to print long, dull public-service stories, and knocking the ears off our competitors. Our story seems to me to be brilliantly illustrative of the newspaper business generally.

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When the "big story" breaks, especially if it is a story of little educational relevance, schoolmen-newsmen relations may be strained and educational publicists torn between conflicting conceptions of news value. The publicist's problem is not so much to decide whose side he is on as it is to determine how far he can go risking possible notoriety for his client institution in return for continued cooperation and good relations with the press. Larry Howe of the Rochester (N.Y.) Democrat and Chronicle, and a former college

PR man himself, dramatized the issue in the Gannetteer (1960):

> The girl's brutally beaten body was found on a Monday, naked except for a pair of bright red slippers. Two days later . . . she was identified as a coed at the college which hires you to handle its public relations. The next day an arrest is made. And no one is too much surprised when the accused slayer turns out to be a student at the college, the murdered girl's boy friend.
>
> Across the state the newspapers play it big . . . . Nonplussed, college officials tell you: Don't give the newspapers any help . . . . Riding high, the newspapers say: Listen, bub, we've printed your junk for years. Now that you've got something big, cooperate.

"What do you do?" asked Howe. "In this case, a true one, incidentally," he answered, "the PR man, realizing that the story would be forgotten tomorrow but that any suppression would be remembered for years, cooperated with the press."

What will be forgotten by whom, and who might consider what "suppression," are debatable questions. But it is hardly debatable that for the school PR man it is the newsmen's memory that counts most. If he becomes persona non grata to the press, he might as well quit his field or leave the area. So, in fact, he has little choice. If he wants the press to print his "junk" week after week, he will cooperate in the "big story" even if it hurts.

Organizational news: local vs. national

The American newspaper's basic constituency is its market area. Local organizational and public affairs publicity is given as a matter of area service. Relatively few organizations and agencies command the attention of one or both national wire services; only a fraction of these find a place in the columns of the local paper. National attention is, therefore, highly selective.

"I doubt that the name of any educator in the nation is known to more than 2 or 3 percent of all Americans," one education writer observed. "Few people can see beyond their local school board and the local property tax," commented another. "There is some dim awareness of state school officials, even less of the U.S. Office of Education." "As a working education editor," he continued, "I find that most laymen do not understand when I refer to the N.E.A. by its initials."*

Public awareness is, of course, a matter of cultivation. Many of our respondents described differences in treatment between local and national education news, and commented not only on the amount but also on the kind of attention professional education organizations receive from the press.

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*Cited in Styles, 1961.

Local associations were more likely, of course, to maintain personal contact with education reporters in their community. "Since these organizations are trying to sell themselves to the public and since they are often run by dynamic teachers, we find little difficulty in communicating with them," wrote the education writer of a New York state daily. "We are, of course, interested in local teachers' organizations," she noted. However, the national organization, she wrote,

> is not an organization financed by taxpayers. It is a group trying to sell the needs of teachers. It is a lobbying organization. It is not local. Some of its reports are news. Some are just one side of a story. Its press releases are much too frequent.

Another reporter commented:

> There has been little difficulty working with the National Education Association. We generally handle their conventions . . . . We realize their right to advocate federal aid, for example, and they realize our right to oppose it. Locally, the teachers' organization has been cooperative . . . .

The education writer on a border state daily dismissed the NEA with the terse remark: "Piles more junk mail on my desk than any organization, public or private, in the United States." On the question of local affiliates he said:

> The state Education Association is well organized, able men staff it, and they are my friends. The city and county Associations are "company unions."

The docility of some local affiliates appeared to make for smooth relationships but, at times, little news value. A reporter on an East Coast metropolitan daily expressed it this way:

> I work with the NEA at their national conventions and I get their flood of mail during the year, some of which is newsworthy. I get along well with the NEA's public relations people in Washington. Locally, I rarely deal with the NEA affiliate because it is pretty much of a company union and rarely makes news. The smaller, snippier AF of T affiliate often does make news because it opposes the educational status quo.

Only one education writer expressed explicit agreement with NEA policies. His publisher, a former Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare, took an active and sympathetic interest in educational matters. The reporter found it difficult to understand why the local teachers' association did not take a more independent stand on school board and administrative policy.

> Relations with the NEA /he wrote/, and by this I mean the national office and its few national representatives we meet, are excellent. NEA information is invaluable to us, we agree with most of its policies and objectives. The problem in this area is that local chapters confine themselves to the less innocuous activities of such organizations -- style shows, parties for retiring teachers and doing salary studies. Try and get a statement from them about a school board policy -- whether it is good for their students, good for the schools and the community -- and you find they stand mute. Try and get them to speak up on some administrative matter and they have nothing to say.

Most reporters used such terms as "propaganda," "lobby," or "pressure group" in talking about the NEA and its activities. The institutional vantage point and "taxpayer" outlook of the average daily newspaper appears to sensitize reporters to see primarily -- and sometimes only -- the financial control issue involved in national and sometimes even local organizational news in education. The following comments were typical:

> NEA news releases make good statistical stories, but that's about all. Much of their stuff is propaganda for higher teacher pay. The NEA is a lobby as I see it. Its demands for doubling teacher pay across the board and its opposition to merit pay are predictable.

*

> There is a dearth of educational statistics and NEA makes its own available . . . . The education reporter must realize NEA or other teachers' organizations will be propagandizing for whatever they want. NEA's outpourings on federal aid get on my nerves sometimes. They beat the horse to death.

*

> If the national and state teacher organizations are doing anything to help the local press relations of their local chapters, I have yet to see it. Indeed, the national and state organizations seem to spend most of their time reassuring teachers that they are underpaid and underappreciated but doing the best of all possible jobs. The public is yet to be convinced.

*

> Actually, teachers and their organizations display little or no interest in presenting themselves to the press except when the salary schedule is under consideration. And

> at that time all issues become black and white. The teachers feel the paper spends too much space in explaining how salary requests will affect the local property tax rate, for example.

Issues

Over and above the routine, even if sensitive, aspects of organized contacts between newsmen and schoolmen, a few deep-seated issues have begun to dominate school news headlines across the nation in the 1950's.

Newsmen's perceptions of headline issues in education reporting reveal the rising tempo of community conflict over basic problems of resource allocation. These headline issues are the right-wing attacks on education, the movement toward integration, and the problem of violence.

The right-wing attacks followed in the wake of postwar planning for solutions to the long-delayed financial crisis in education. The controversies were -- and still are -- usually couched in terms of textbooks, curriculum, and "subversion." Their most telling effect, however, has been the reversal or slowing down of structural and financial reform school leaders sought in order to improve, or at least maintain, the quality of education. One of the earliest descriptions of the pattern can be found in Hulburd's _This Happened in Pasadena_ (1951). A collection of magazine comments over the next few years has been edited by Scott and others (1959) and published under the title _Great Debate_. A recent survey on _The American Right Wing_ conducted for the Public Affairs Press by Ellsworth and Harris (1962) found that "almost every one of the thousand right wing organizations described . . . has been fighting progressive education, the National Education Association and John Dewey ever since the war's end. It is felt that any federal support of education is bound to be support of progressive or Big Education, and that federal aid must therefore be fought on these grounds also." As to federal aid itself, they wrote:

> Conservative opposition to federal aid to education has been absolute . . . . There is first of all the basic opposition to strengthening the federal octopus or authorizing additional expenditures. We have no need of federal scholarships, conservatives declare, since thousands of available scholarship dollars go unclaimed every year. Neither do we need buildings, since the children are already too much spoiled with gymnasiums and swimming pools. Floyd D. Golden, Vice Chairman of the American Legion's Americanism Commission in 1956, reported to Congress the Legion's opposition to Federal Aid for Education. He spoke of the danger of undermining state and local responsibility; of powerful centralized authority leading to thought control and to infiltration by the communist conspiracy; of higher taxes (p. 19).

Weakening of local controls, the prospect of higher taxes, and the danger of "communist conspiracy" are major strands in the tangled web of right-wing arguments. Judging by newsmen's views reported here and the case study of national organizational education news reporting presented in the next chapter, these themes are reflected in much of the orientation of the press as a whole. Studies of political affiliation and tendency of reporting in other countries, discussed in subsequent chapters, will give further indications of the position and effect of right-wing interests on the patterns of mass media representations. The unique aspects of the American scene include not only the pervasive and broadly accepted premises (even if not all the conclusions) of the right-wing "case," but also its affinity with the approach of many in the academic community whose attacks, stemming from different premises, appeared to have a similar impact. As Ellsworth and Harris reported:

> Conservatives . . . have been quick to identify themselves with those teachers and educators who have recently begun to attack progressive education on other grounds. Arthur Bestor, Mortimer Smith and their Council for Basic Education, for example, have been cordially welcomed into the right wing movement by *National Review* and *U.S.A.* Although the *CBE Bulletin* has had nothing to say about Russian plots or the planned society, most of its comments are completely congenial to the conservative mind. The fact that CBE, seeking to strengthen the intellectual dedication of the schools, has attracted rightwing admirers who often describe themselves as anti-intellectual, is less paradoxical than at first appears, since both groups . . . believe that additional financing, federal, state, or other, would do nothing for the schools but perpetuate a bad situation (p. 21).

The Ellsworth and Harris study noted that right-wing publications "are lively chronicles of the bills that are up before each house, and they keep a vigilant eye on all legislative matters. Today there is no comparable body of political writing from the left except for the trade union papers which are less in volume and more limited in coverage." The survey concluded that "events have moved rapidly in directions that are consistent with the previous doctrines, beliefs and actions of the American right wing," and that the "shifting attitude of the public towards the public schools has gone [in the same] directions" (p. 43).

If that picture is overdrawn, newsmen commenting on the issue, nearly one-third of our respondents, did not think so. "I have been amazed," wrote one education reporter, "that so many of the highly publicized attacks have been delivered from such a narrow base." About equal number of reporters expressed their publishers' (or their own) support as opposition to the attacks; a few were "neutral." One education writer gave the following account of events which revealed to him the results of the "alliance" of "professors" and "tax-rate-guided hatchetmen" in his city:

> A number of elements -- the post-Sputnik criticism of American schools, the Council for Basic Education Agitation, and the persistent sniping of a group of business conservatives chiefly interested in the tax rate, among them -- brought about a request from the city's board of education for a university survey of the school system . . . . The image presented in our competitor (a Hearst paper) was of a doughty

> little band of fearless teachers and citizens, led by brilliant and public-spirited university celebrities, assailing the "educationists," administrators who were allegedly thwarting the efforts of pure-spirited but cowed public-school faculties.. . . .
>
> It is dangerous to attempt to describe, as if objectively, the image one's own news coverage projects. But as I saw the situation myself and as I tried to describe it, it was a rather emotional attack by a group of professors who were, I believe, and certainly must hope, unaware that they were allied with all the oppositionists, panacea-lovers, and tax-rate-guided hatchetmen . . . . I think the correctness of my diagnosis was borne out to some extent by the fact that many of the most important things the professors proposed were not put into practice. Perhaps the most important was the recommendation that in order to improve English instruction the number of English teachers should be increased so that none has more than 100 students. I would have told the professors that they could not expect to bring about such an expensive reform when their backers on the school board were the Chamber of Commerce "economy bloc."

In another controversial affair the newspaper was characterized by its school reporter as "editorially" neutral but repertorially active:

> The local John Birch Society came to dominate the scene. There was a great deal of fundamentalist, conservative anti-adjustment type of agitation. The result was that the new State Superintendent of Public Instruction authorized a group of teachers to prepare a course in the American Heritage and the Evils of Communism. When this book was reviewed it raised another fuss.
>
> The role of the paper was essentially neutral. We wrote stories about the controversy, explained the textbook selection process, wrote about specific textbooks, and generally poked fun at the critics. Editorially we are sitting back.

Integration and violence. The basic problem of resources -- whose solution required reforms that drew much of the right wing's fire -- erupted in many forms in the mid-fifties and early sixties. That period saw the official "discovery" of poverty and the "culturally deprived," of "slums and suburbs," of the "dropouts" and the growing number of unemployed and unemployable youth, of "blackboard jungles" and juvenile violence. Related to all of these and striking at the root of the resource problem was the growing militancy of the integration movement. The right wing groups, who, even in the north, "have stood firmly against integration again on the ground of federal interference" with local "right," were among the first to recognize the political and financial implications of civil rights in general and school integration in particular (Ellsworth and Harris, 1962, p. 21). But the implications have struck close to home on nearly every newspaper whose revenues (regardless of editorial policy or reader support) come largely from white community interests vested in local control and in the newspaper's marketing functions. One education reporter expressed the views of nearly every respondent when he said:

> The major problem since 1955 has been integration. The percentage of Negro pupils increased from 19 percent to over 30 percent in the city schools. Most of the Negro and integrated schools are in culturally deprived areas. The paper has been hesitant to take an editorial policy. The suburban development also played an important role in this picture.

Newspapers, torn between recognition of the problems and the sharp and often violent reaction of some power groups in the communities they serve, began to assess their role in the conflict. One of our respondents said that he resigned from a Texas newspaper after the publisher decided to suppress advance news of school integration in order to assure a more orderly transition. The "Case for News Suppression" was publicly argued in the Fall 1963 issue of the Columbia Journalism Review and in other journals. But studies reported in Chapters III and V confirm the impression that school integration leads in frequency and "news value" among all education news topics. The movement for integration, and for justice beyond integration, has become the No. 1 domestic news story in the American press. The new "professionalized" education reporter found much of the story a part of his normal beat. This meant not only new events to report but also a new context in which to conduct the routine service coverage of the schools. As a reporter on a large midwestern daily explained:

> Nearly half of our pupils are colored. We have trouble with that. Often we have to play down pictures of colored children or have to be careful to pick a school which is not too integrated.
>
> The other day I had such trouble in a kindergarten class. I had the photographer taking a picture in the class and the teacher said to me, "Don't you think you have too many chocolate drops in this picture?"
>
> Our picture editor is very prejudiced. He claims it is impossible to take good pictures of colored people. He says the pictures come out so dark that this poses a technical problem.
>
> Each Saturday we have a full picture page of school activities. We can have trouble if we portray an all-Negro school and trouble if we portray an integrated school.
>
> The slums and the slum schools are in the heart of the city. Many people are moving out to the suburbs, mostly

> whites. We have come to favor the more exclusive residential areas. They demand and get publicity. In the process we neglect the schools of the inner city.

Not long after we have concluded our interviews, the neglected schools of inner cities across the country burst into the headlines with news of demonstrations, boycotts, and suddenly publicized "waves" of classroom terror and violence. "Professionalization" in education reporting has led both to increased coverage and to a tightening of news value priorities governing school news at a time of deepening crisis.

Toward an institutional perspective

Although a full-scale institutional analysis of the complex history and current status of relationships between the press and the schools is beyond the scope of this study, a brief outline might help to place our findings and observations in perspective.

Institutions are collective social enterprises performing functions of value for "clients" -- individuals, groups, other institutions -- who support them. Their basic structures and functions are shaped by this set of external or client relationships, and a set of internal or supervisory relationships.

The client relationship is with those who have the option of availing themselves of the institution's goods or services and who, by exercising their option and paying for value received, affect the existence, functions, and level of support of the institution. The supervisory relationships -- chain of command within the institution -- insure that at least minimum demands imposed by clients are met, and usually act to maximize the usefulness -- and value -- of the institution to its principal clients.*

There is, of course, an area of common interest shared by major institutions in the same society. However, the interpretation of the "common interest" will differ, and conflicts of interest may emerge, whenever the relationships shaping the structure, functions, and social roles of an institution diverge from those of another institution.

In considering the kind of attention the press or any mass medium pays another social institution, and the nature of professional contacts it maintains with the other institution, it is necessary to take into account the extent of overlapping and of divergence between sets of relationships basic to the two institutions. Comparative analysis of these relationships does not explain all aspects of the situation. However, such analysis can illuminate the general system underlying the approach of one institution to another, and it might explain the relevance of these approaches to the social order in which the institutions operate.

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*Certain aspects of such an institutional analysis are discussed by Kimball and McClellan (1963) in their chapter on "The Corporate Society and Education," esp. pp. 207-209.

*

The school system is the largest public enterprise in most communities. It is a principal user of local taxes, goods, and services. The quality and quantity of its services are closely related to the income level of the neighborhood and to the location of its clients -- whose option is limited -- on the rungs of the community power ladder.* In virtually reproducing the income and status hierarchy of the local community, the American school is a prime example of the financial and political effects of local control. The supervisory relationships within the institution are increasingly strained by the conflicting demands of the established community powers on one hand, and of other client groups pressing for an equalization of services on the other, while local resources are strained to their limits.

The newspaper's stake in the system of local control stems from its client relationships and functions. No paper is sustained by selling information, or even entertainment, to its readers. The principal sustaining service of the newspaper is the creation and cultivation of a reading public of consumers concentrated in a market area which provides the base for the profitable operation of the chief supporting clientele, the advertisers. The "quality" and quantity of readers as consumers determine the value and price of this service. These market functions require the newspaper to attract readers by amusing, exciting, provoking, and selling, as well as informing them. These relationships and functions also shape the overall approach of the newspaper to other institutions and events, and affect the kind of attention it will pay to different publics. News and views are selected not only to be of broad general appeal but also to be of relevance and usefulness to the system of local controls in which the press and its public of clients wield maximum influence.

Newsmen's views, schoolmen's observations, and the literature in the field of press-school relations suggest that newspapers are most sensitive to two types of challenge to this structure of local control. One is further professionalization and organization in the education field, making that vast public enterprise more independent of local direction and supervision. The other is any re-allocation of resources which might at least temporarily upset the present local bases of newspaper and other business operations.

Professionalization means greater autonomy and self-direction governed by social purpose and economic self-interest. The avenues to professionalization in education are more intensive and cohesive teacher training programs and militant teacher organization especially on the national level -- both areas of frequent tension and conflict between schoolmen, newsmen, and community power groups.

Movements toward equalization of resources range from national participation in educational financing (such as "federal aid," and the strengthening of the now relatively powerless U.S. Office of Education) to school integration. While the ultimate effects of such movements may be recognized by many as both necessary and desirable, the short-run consequences are perceived as disturbing the established order of things.

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*Cf. e.g. Sexton, 1961; Gross, 1956, 1958; and the series of monographs on "The Economics and Politics of Public Education" published by Syracuse University Press in 1962.

Some conclusions

The average reporter on the school beat is an earnest and hard-working newsman. He is impressed with the significance of his assignment even if still somewhat restive about his (or her) prestige in the newsroom. He receives more time and support to do a better job than ten years ago but is still harassed and short-handed. He believes that his point of view, which is generally that of his management, represents the approach of the majority of lay citizens and taxpayers -- or at least of those who "count."

The celebrated "Boom on the School Beat" appears to have been more a sign of recognition and "professionalization" than a rise in the proportion of editorial employees holding school news assignments on American daily papers. The time, duties, and status of the assignments vary greatly. Mobility on the job is generally high. The "hard news, local angle" policy sets the style of reporting on most papers.

The local orientation of the American daily paper also assures a fair amount of community school news, and makes the newspaper sensitive to local organizational interests, movements, and affairs. Its controlling institutional relations alert the press to any challenge to its prerogative to select and shape information by its own criteria of relevance to its own functions and publics. National agencies, organizations, and movements in education are usually perceived as special pleaders threatening the structure of local influence and control -- a structure in which both school and press have a vital and at least partly conflicting interest.

The dynamics and the effects of these institutional relationships upon representations of the educational enterprise will be further illuminated in subsequent chapters. In the next chapter we present the findings of a case study inquiring into some patterns of national organizational press coverage in all American daily papers. There we shall be able to observe the ways in which some of the views, practices, and issues discussed in this chapter are reflected in the actual content of the news. Chapters IV and V will repeat this procedure of informal survey, case studies, and systematic content analysis in a cross-cultural and comparative perspective.

CHAPTER III

COVERAGE OF THE 1961 NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION CONVENTION IN AMERICAN DAILY NEWSPAPERS

> You will have to go out of Atlantic City with a big drum and bell, because, believe me, this convention generally is not going to make the front pages of most newspapers of America--it is going to make page 37.
>
> Sam Levenson to the 1961 NEA convention

This chapter reports the major findings of a case study of the nature and patterns of educational press coverage on the national level. The coverage of the National Education Association's annual convention was chosen for analysis. The NEA meeting is perhaps the most significant, and certainly the largest, regular occasion for communicating the achievements, needs, and problems of American education to the profession and the general public.

This study has contributed to some publications and monographs (Gerbner 1962A, 1963A, 1963B), and has led to further investigations still to be reported. A complete account of the comparative examination of day-by-day convention activities and the consequent press coverage is not possible within present limitations of space, but will be published separately. This chapter is limited to a brief account of the background and process of convention coverage, a summary of overall findings of the content analysis, and a discussion of the major issues and patterns found in the press coverage.

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The basic source of data was a collection of press items featuring the Atlantic City convention, and appearing in English-language U.S. daily papers from a month before the convention opened until a month after its closing. The extended period made it possible to check on pre-convention publicity, and to obtain delayed editorials inspired by the convention press coverage. About 90 percent of all stories analyzed appeared during convention week.

The average weekday circulation of every daily paper printing a convention item was recorded. Each news or feature story or editorial was checked for type, length, source, page position, headline-and-lead content, and the incidence of all topics and names in the story. Other pertinent information was obtained through personal contact with convention staff and reporters. (More information on the methods of analysis, and all basic tabulations can be found in Appendix II-B.)

Covering the convention: background, process, outcomes

Education, the biggest public enterprise of the nation, makes about 4 percent of all news in the daily press. Most of that news is of local origin. Few regular events shift the educational news spotlight onto the national scene. One of these occasions is the annual convention of the National Education Association.

The NEA is the largest educational, and indeed professional, association in the world. Its top governing body is the Representative Assembly meeting once a year in conjunction with the Annual Convention.

The 99th Annual Convention and 40th Representative Assembly of the NEA met in Atlantic City, N.J., from June 25 to June 30, 1961. The affair drew a total of about 12,000 conventioners, visitors and observers from the U.S. and abroad. Some 60 representatives of commercial and professional media were on hand to report through press, radio, television, and specialized publications what the NEA had to say about the state and problems of American education to the profession and to the public.

For six days, the convention plowed through a schedule of speeches, panels, business meetings, banquets, receptions, demonstrations and exhibits. Delegates met in four General Assemblies, six general Business Sessions, some 29 Department, 24 Committee and Commission, and 17 Section meetings. They attended 46 film showings, viewed some 150 commercial exhibits, and saw five demonstrations of "Nike in the Attack." There were well over 500 speakers and other scheduled (and many unscheduled) participants to hear and -- potentially -- to report. Needless to say, no one could encompass it all. The Proceedings of the General Assemblies and Business Sessions alone ran to 240 closely printed pages. But even what could be encompassed and reported faced tough competition.

The competition for national attention

Voluntary associations list over half the adult population of America on one or more membership rolls.* A respectable amount (and, preferably, kind) of public visibility has become a virtual requirement for organizational survival and success. Little service could be performed, funds collected, members enrolled, and public influence exerted without some organizational facade attracting the attention of non-members who, in one way or another, affect the climate of both private and public giving and decision-making.

Conventions epitomize publicity-making activities of organizations. "Most conventions need to have publicity," wrote Frank W. Hubbard, NEA Assistant Executive Secretary for Information Services in the foreward of the NEA booklet on How to Win Convention Headlines. "This need is especially important with regard to conventions organized by members of the teaching profession. Educators simply must have the cooperation of the communication channels -- newspapers, radio, TV and magazines -- in order to promote public understanding of education and of the profession."

Newspapers, too, must perform several functions and cater to diverse interests. Their primary need -- self-preservation -- requires servicing the industrial order and promoting the sale of goods (and copies) from which revenue is derived. This function occupies most of the space, dictates the basic policies, and permeates the content of the American daily paper.

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*Murray Gendell and Hans L. Zetterberg, A Sociological Almanac for the United States (New York: The Bedminster Press, 1961), Table 35.

National news is limited to an average of less than 12 percent of the total news space, even in large metropolitan dailies (Deutschmann, 1959). Organizations are among the most vociferous news-makers on the national scene. If every one of the over 8,700 national associations in America held only one major annual meeting lasting only three days, 72 national conventions would be competing for press attention every day.

The main business of that clamor for attention is business itself. More than 57 percent of all national associations represent manufacturing, trade, and commercial interests.* The industrial and business establishment itself is the main sponsor, client, and information source of the press, supporting it with about 34 cents of every $100 worth of goods sold,** and filling at least three-fourths of all newspaper space with paid (advertising) and unpaid (financial and business) messages.

The rest of human events and interests compete for the remaining fourth. Sports, comics, and society news take from one-third to half of that space. About 20 percent of the still remaining space goes to popular amusements such as TV and movie "news"; about another 20 percent to that elusive category called "human interest" (including obituaries and the weather); and roughly 10 percent is devoted to crime, accident, and disaster news.***

This leaves about one-sixteenth of the average newspaper to cover and comment upon the world of governments and politics; wars and revolutions; defense and diplomacy; public health, welfare, and justice; science, invention, religion, education, literature and the arts -- and the activities of persons and organizations in these and related fields.

It was in this general context that the educational news spotlight came to rest, as it does each year, upon the NEA convention. The annual affair symbolizes more than any other single event the nature of professional, press, and public concern with education as a national enterprise. In an advance memorandum alerting editors across the country to the Atlantic City convention,

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*Other types of national organizations are: educational and cultural (6 percent); health and medical (5 percent); agricultural (4 percent); Greek letter (3.5 percent); scientific and technical; religious; social welfare; labor; nationality and ethnic (about 3 percent each); public administration, military, and legal; athletic; fraternal; public affairs; veterans and patriotic; hobby and avocational; and horticultural (each numbering from 1 to 2 percent of the total). Cf. Gendell and Zetterberg, op. cit., Table 35.

**Calculated as follows: All media receive 1.09 percent of all sales (Advertising Age, May 4, 1959, p. 46). Newspapers' share of all advertising expenditures is 31 percent. (Printers' Ink Yearbook, Sept. 1, 1961, p. 367) Thus, newspapers get 0.34 percent of all sales.

***For all news content figures, cf. Deutschmann, 1959.

Roy K. Wilson, director of NEA's Division of Press and Radio Relations, announced:

> In almost 400 sessions the teachers and administrators will cover topics which reflect large social problems as well as specialized educational needs. Some examples: education for the "disadvantaged American," education in a credit-card society, understanding today's families, what to teach the future Peace Corpsman, the implications of teaching machines and instructional technology, and the place of the individual in the American school.

Here, then, was American education in a microcosm from which the observer could fashion almost any kind of picture. The constraints on observation, on the reporting process, and on the structure and nature of press attention, made the actually emerging pattern a highly selective and synthetic product.

Publicizing the convention

The publicity staff is responsible for "pre-structuring" potential "events" and making them visible to news media. When the convention opened in Atlantic City, the NEA's Division of Press and Radio Relations had most of its work behind it.

For about a month prior to the convention, a series of advance releases, reports, and special stories with "hometown" local angles had gone to newspapers and other news and feature outlets across the country. A "Memorandum to Editors" listing convention highlights and "name" speakers was mailed a month in advance of opening day to alert editors and to invite correspondents to the convention.

A week before opening day, a general release reached nearly 1,800 news outlets. The suggested headline was "NEA SEEKS HIGHER STANDARDS FOR PROFESSIONAL TEACHERS." The lead stressed a proposed move to strengthen professional qualifications required for membership.

Two days later another general release emphasized the "curriculum theme" of the convention. "TEACHERS TO STUDY PROMISING NEW PRACTICES AT NEA CONVENTION" was suggested headline. Another "Memorandum to Editors" accompanying the release renewed the invitation to the sessions and announced news conferences with NEA President Clarice Kline on the educational implications of population trends, and with NEA Executive Secretary William G. Carr launching a study of the effects of automation on education.

The final advance release gave "news" of the Clarice Kline press conference scheduled for opening night. Accompanying the release was a study on "Financing Education in the 1960's," giving a state-by-state breakdown of population projections by age groups.

Two of the three advance stories contained names or figures providing local angles for newspapers in each state. Most newspapers also received other stories before and during the convention featuring names of local delegates.

*

About ten percent of all newspaper stories written about the convention appeared before opening day June 25, 1961. Most of this pre-convention coverage was the result of advance staff work. Only eight wire stories and four special bylined reports were among the 226 pre-convention stories published in nearly 12 million copies across the country. (See Appendix II-B-4, Table 5.)

Four out of five pre-convention stories highlighted local names and local angles. Half of all pre-convention stories carried only local delegates' names with up to one paragraph of explanation. One out of five stories made use of advance news releases containing program information and convention highlights. Ten small circulation papers used a release verbatim in news story leads. (See Appendix II-B-5, Table 6.)

Professional and other convention issues noted in NEA releases received scanty press attention and appeared to have no effect on subsequent coverage of the convention. Among the "name" participants featured in advance releases, that of Dr. Jonas Salk attracted most press attention before the convention. (In the coverage of the convention itself, Dr. Salk was not even among the ten most frequently cited speakers.)

Once the convention opened, the publicity operation shifted to facilitating the work of reporters. Aside from mailing out hometown publicity items about delegates and officers in attendance, the staff prepared few general releases. The reporting, distribution, and editorial processes were virtually free to shape the press coverage of this multifaceted event to their own image.

Reporting the Convention

When the convention began, the Press Office and Hometown News Center, manned by the Press and Radio Division staff of eleven and a clerical staff of more than a dozen, were in full operation. Correspondents were registered, supplied with folders (kept up to date with new material each day), given badges, working space, typewriters, reference materials, telephone and wire facilities, on-the-spot information, tickets to meals and meetings, and constant hot coffee.

Reporting the convention was considered the reporters' job. The care and feeding of 31 representatives of commercial media, 29 representatives of educational and miscellaneous publications, and 1,008 convention-delegate "hometown correspondents" kept the publicity staff busy at Atlantic City.

Two scheduled news conferences were held and others arranged upon request. Taped interviews were prepared for use by broadcasting stations. Copies of speeches were requested from 90 key speakers, and eventually received from 21, for distribution to reporters. Pictures of officers, groups, and several hundred "hometown delegates" were processed and mailed to the press. The "hometown news service" mailed out more than 4,300 stories and pictures during the week.

In retrospect, one P & R staff member made the criticism that "the program arrangement was very uneven as far as newsworthy events were concerned." Some potentially newsworthy events overlapped with others, she thought, while certain days featured relatively little of press interest.

In the opinion of another NEA staff member "the lack of response from the networks and immediate area (Philadelphia and New York) stations was disappointing. But it must be remembered that Atlantic City is a 'vast wasteland' as far as network radio and television are concerned."

Another staff member made the following comment: "I felt the general session speakers were, on the whole, not terribly exciting or newsworthy. Nor was the debate on resolutions as exciting as it was in previous years. Reporters got some good feature stuff out of the smaller sessions such as the reading demonstration, the Van Til and Raubinger attacks on teaching machines, etc. In fact, some of the reporters felt the teaching machine story was the significant story of the convention . . ."

*

As we have seen in the previous chapter, most newsmen would agree with Robert Dishon of the Milwaukee Journal who said that "The N.E.A. must surely be considered a prime spokesman for education, but I believe many look upon it as a big pressure group which emits much propaganda," (Styles, 1961).

The safest publicity effort in the face of this widespread feeling in the trade (on whose cooperation the publicist must depend) is the kind which features straight organizational business, familiar activities, local names or other personal publicity. It was in this field of hometown press service to organizational life that efforts of the NEA publicity staff were most noticeable in the press coverage: names, announcements, procedural and ceremonial functions. One out of five stories featured local names; one-third of the total circulation highlighted no issues. The staff had fair success in the acceptance of non-controversial survey information (such as was mailed out to papers and released at the conference on population trends and mobility); still, six times as many stories featured local names as did news of the two surveys put together.

Pure and simple organizational and service news is the newspaper's concession to the need for visibility, for "legitimizing" organizational activities through public acknowledgement, and for conferring status upon members and officers through local and national public notice.

But this, of course, is not enough. Self-aggrandizement and disinterested service may be the ideals of all organizations, but the prime mover of most is the desire to influence public policy. Dealing with issues becomes not only unavoidable but the heart of the news-making process.

The issue-laden story is the jealously-guarded domain of the press. The reporter out to get "the story" usually has a sense of independence from his news sources, and an equally keen sense of working for a publishing organization with its own interpretation of the public interest. As G. K. Hodenfield of the Associated Press wrote, he may feel like a "grandstand quarterback" observing the organization game. Hodenfield described "part of the fun" of reporting the educational conference circuit as "the opportunity to second-guess the manager or find fault with the way the quarterback is running the team. You can stay aloof from the practicalities, the responsibilities, and the pressures, and let sheer logic prevail."*

Reporters like Hodenfield, as "any grandstand quarterback worthy of the name," he wrote, "have some strong convictions" about educational issues. But after the publicist with his "nose for headlines," the reporter with his sense of "news values," the national distribution network, and the local editorial and circulation processes are through with their respective functions of selecting, treating, and disseminating the news, the logic that prevails in the final pattern is the logic of institutions.

After a brief summary of overall findings, the remainder of this chapter will be devoted to the analysis of issues and a discussion of the pattern of institutional vantage points found in the press coverage.

Summary of major content findings

A total of 2,240 relevant daily newspaper items were found to have announced, reported, or commented upon the convention. The combined circulation of these stories was estimated to be nearly 140 million copies.** We had no way of measuring the adequacy of the amount of press attention devoted to the convention. Enough stories featured the convention to have at least one for every newspaper in the country. Wire services distributed two-thirds of the stories; ten wire stories accounted for almost half the combined circulation of all 2,240 stories.

Actually, of course, the stories were not evenly distributed among, or selected by, all papers. Large circulation papers (100,000 or more) averaged almost three stories during convention week; medium circulation papers (10,000 to 100,000) averaged about two; and at least half of the small circulation papers (10,000 or less), which number more than the other two groups combined, printed nothing.

If smalltown and rural America read about the convention at all, it read fewer stories, shorter stories, and more local name and wire stories than did readers in the larger market areas. On the other hand, smaller papers were more likely to print pre-convention and other NEA-staff-written news releases, to run stories on the front page, and to offer editorial comment, than were the larger papers.

With 28 newspaper reporters in attendance, less than 5 percent of all stories carried the byline of a staff correspondent. However, these stories appeared in the larger circulation papers (all of them east of the Mississippi); byline stories accounted for 17 percent of the total circulation.

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*G. K. Hodenfield, "Nobody Asked Me, But..." Saturday Review, January 20, 1962, p. 51.

**The method of arriving at combined circulation figures is discussed in Appendix II-B-2, Table 1. Stories by circulation class and time period are tabulated in Appendix II-B-2, Table 2.

The key factor in national coverage was clearly the wire service distribution, originating in the work of no more than two or three reporters. Wire service and syndicated stories dominated the coverage with 65 percent of all stories and 61 percent of the combined circulation of all stories. After opening day, the share of wire service and syndicated coverage climbed to 72 percent of all stories and 66 percent of combined circulation. (See Appendix II-B-4, Table 5.)

An even more striking indication of the influence of the distribution system was the fact that ten Associated Press wire stories filed after opening day (0.5 percent of all stories) achieved a combined circulation of 63,690,000, or nearly half the aggregate circulation of all 2,240 stories about the convention.

At least 200 convention pictures appeared in a total circulation of over 13 million copies. Incoming NEA President Ewald Turner dominated the pictorial coverage (but occupied tenth place among speakers cited) with nearly one hundred wire photos of over 4 million circulation. In seven letters to the editor (appearing mostly after the convention) returning delegates commended local papers for their coverage, or supplied additional detail.

More than one in every ten convention stories made the front page, more frequently in smaller than in larger papers. The circulation share of all front-page convention stories was 6.7 percent of the total. The desegregation issue was headlined in three times the number of front-page stories of its closest rival, federal aid to education. (See Appendix II-B-7, Table 8.)

About one-third of all convention-story circulation published after opening day did not highlight any educational issue. These stories featured straight organizational news: announcements of meetings, names of delegates or officials, elections, appointments, awards, etc.

The remaining two-thirds of all circulation (but six out of every seven convention items) played up matters of more critical relevance. These have been grouped into issues of (1) primarily national and political, (2) curriculum, and (3) professional concern. The following summary tabulation gives the combined circulation of stories in these broad categories:

HEADLINE AND LEAD REFERENCE TO:	Circ. in 1000's	No. of stories	Ave. Circ. per story in 1000's
No issues (general mention of NEA, teachers, elections, appointments, awards, other names and convention procedure)	40,904	296	138
National and political issues (federal aid to education, desegregation, etc.	55,281	1,296	49
Curriculum and teaching issues (communication technology, "team teaching," etc.)	24,573	316	78
Professional issues and relations with the community (right to strike, certification, salaries, etc.)	7,118	106	67
TOTALS	127,876	2,014	63

National and political issues dominated the press coverage. They were featured in 64 percent of all stories and 43 percent of all circulation. Curriculum and teaching topics were highlighted in less than 20 percent, and professional issues in less than 5 percent of all stories and circulation.

The convention evoked 90 editorials of over three million total circulation. The average circulation per editorial was the same as the average circulation per front-page story. It may be that front-page attention tends to attract editorial comment; if so, however, it is not necessarily on the same issues. (See Appendix II-B-7, Table 9.)

News of President Kennedy's message to the convention boosted the circulation of stories devoted mainly to federal aid to the largest on a single convention issue. An expected battle over desegregation (which never materialized) resulted in the largest number of headlines and leads printed about the convention (more frequently by smaller circulation papers), and claimed the lion's share of front-page attention. The third highest frequency issue in the press coverage was that of communication technologies in education, especially "teaching machines." Several ingredients of newsworthiness made an attack on "machines" appear to some reporters the "significant story" of the convention.

The "teaching machine story" also inspired almost half of all editorials dealing with the convention -- most of them critical of "machines." Sixty-nine percent of editorial comment on all convention topics was hostile or critical.

The sections that follow present a more detailed account of the structuring of the three types of issues -- national political, curriculum and teaching, and professional-community relations -- as they appeared in the press coverage.

National political issues

More than half of all convention stories, but less than half of the combined circulation of the convention coverage, featured national and political issues. Following is the number and circulation of these items in three major categories, compared with the headline-and-lead totals of all convention stories:*

HEADLINE AND LEAD REFERENCE TO:	Circ. in 1000's	No. of stories	Ave. Circ. per story in 1000's
Federal aid to education	23,550	407	58
Desegregation	18,704	681	27
Other national and political issues	13,027	208	63
Total national and political issues	55,281	1,296	49
All convention topics	127,876	2,014	63

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*More detailed tabulations will be found in Appendix II-B-8 and 9, Tables 10, 11, and 12.

Federal aid to education held the limelight in stories with the largest combined circulation. The desegregation issue was featured in the largest number of stories on a single issue.

Relative emphasis can be seen in the distribution of front-page attention. Desegregation was featured in six out of every ten front-page stories about the convention, federal aid in two out of every ten. To put it in another way, nearly a fourth of the total circulation featuring desegregation made the front pages, but only a tenth of the circulation highlighting federal aid received front-page attention. About one-fifteenth of the total circulation of all convention stories rated front-page prominence.

Following are the figures on front-page attention devoted to national political issues, and to all convention stories:*

FRONT-PAGE STORIES:	Circ. in 1000's	No. of Stories	Ave. Circ. per story in 1000's	Percent front-page circulation is of total circulation
Federal aid	2,384	54	44	10.1
Desegregation	4,335	152	29	23.2
Other national and political issues	389	10	39	3.0
All Convention stories	8,572	244	3.5	6.7

A wide range of other national and political issues combined failed by far to attract the headline-and-lead attention of either desegregation or federal aid by itself.

Federal Aid to Education

The federal aid bill was pending in Congress when the NEA met at Atlantic City. President Kennedy termed the bill "probably the most important piece of domestic legislation." Federal aid was favored by 65 percent of Americans in a Gallup poll released February 18, 1960. It was opposed by 55 percent of school board members in a survey released by the National School Boards Association in April, 1962. It was attacked in every editorial noting NEA support of the bill. Shortly after the convention, the already compromised bill was defeated in a House vote 170-242.

Federal aid to education was featured in 407 convention items printed in over 23 million copies. Federal aid stories attracted about half as much front-page circulation as did stories on the desegregation action. Seven editorials commented on federal aid; all were opposed to the NEA action. (See Appendix II-B-7, Tables 8 and 9.)

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*A tabulation of all front-page stories can be found in Appendix II-B-7, Table 8.

The sources of news and comment on the federal aid issue were, in order of the number of stories, (1) President Kennedy's message and NEA support of the federal aid bill pending in Congress; (2) news of an NEA recommendation that delegates write to their Congressmen supporting the bill, headlined in most papers as the "Letter Barrage" resolution; and (3) Senator Morse's comment critical of the Catholic church's position on the issue. (See Appendix II-B-8, Table 10.)

The Kennedy message story, its cautious tone virtually forecasting defeat of the federal aid bill, pre-empted the major share of headline-and-lead attention given to the federal aid issue. An AP report noting "guarded optimism" achieved a circulation of nearly 12 million. Stories of less than three million circulation lead off with news of the NEA resolution on behalf of federal aid.

An inconsequential floor action implying "pressure tactics" fared almost as well as the federal aid resolution. Under headlines exclaiming "LETTER BARRAGE," and "TEACHERS TO BOMBARD CONGRESS," the following wire story was printed by 83 papers with a combined circulation of 2,847,000:

> ATLANTIC CITY, N.J. (AP) -- Delegates to the annual convention of the National Education Association agreed Wednesday to bombard Congress with letters of support for President Kennedy's federal aid to education program.
>
> A resolution pledging each of the 6,000 voting delegates to write his congressman and to get five other persons to join him was approved overwhelmingly by a voice vote.

Next to President Kennedy, Senator Wayne Morse was the source of the largest number of press references to federal aid. The bulk of these came from an Associated Press story printed in 31 papers with a combined circulation of 3,280,000. The lead centered on a remark made by Morse in response to a question after his speech, injecting the religious conflict (missing from the speech itself) into the story:

> ATLANTIC CITY, N.J. (AP) -- Sen. Wayne Morse, D-Ore., Tuesday said the Catholic hierarchy made a great mistake when it threatened to oppose any federal aid to education bill unless parochial schools were included.
>
> Morse, speaking at the annual convention of the National Education Association (NEA), specifically mentioned Francis Cardinal Spellman, archbishop of New York, and the controversial statement issued by Catholic officials last March which asked for federal loans to private schools.

Only six of the 31 papers which printed the AP wire story continued beyond the religious conflict angle. Readers of these could also learn that Morse "chided the NEA for not giving all-out support to proposed legislation extending and expanding the National Defense Education Act of 1958."

*

Convention coverage of the federal aid action sparked seven editorials across the country. All attacked the proposal and its proponents.

The Fort Lauderdale (Fla.) News (circulation 61,000) headlined its two-column, full-page editorial, "WHEN LITTLE BOYS AND GIRLS / BECOME PAWNS OF POLITICS." The editorial ran to 26 paragraphs, sounding the motifs of "teacher lobbyists," "Big Government" with a "stronger grip on educational matters," "tapping the taxpayer."

The South Bend (Ind.) Tribune (circulation 111,000) picked up the "pressure tactics" implication inherent in the "letter barrage" story and made it the spearhead of its editorial attack on federal aid to education. Under the title "DANGEROUS FIRST STEP," the editorial began with a rhetorical question: "If a fellow is up to his ears in debt it wouldn't make sense to try to fast-talk him out of some cash, would it?" "Yet this seems to be what the National Education Association is bent on doing," the editorial continued, in suggesting to "bombard congressmen with letters urging support for the federal aid-to-education bill," and to "get five friends to do the same thing."

The editorial went on to claim "that the federal government is no more financially able to take over the added burden than the individual who is up to his ears in debt and without prospects for changing his status." At the same time it warned that the proposed bill "would be only the beginning of a sensational fiscal binge."

Another indignant editorial voice was that of columnist Ray Spangler of the Palo Alto (Cal.) Times (circulation 32,000). Spangler used the occasion of the NEA action to give a lengthy account of school boards across the country opposing federal aid, and to voice the complaint:

> For some reason unknown to me, the action of the National School Boards Association, a convention of the people we elect to run our school districts, adopted a forthright resolution against federal aid to education and the story barely saw the light of day.

An editorial in the Waukesha (Wis.) Daily Freeman (circulation 15,000) concentrated its fire on the Waukesha high school teacher who made NEA president, Clarice Kline. It published a demand by a Waukesha bank president that the school board disown Miss Kline's efforts on behalf of federal aid, and published a reply headlined "TEACHER DEFENDS POSITION / ON FEDERAL AID TO SCHOOLS." The Freeman also proceeded to make known its own editorial position.

"MISS KLINE PLUGS NEA FEDERAL AID LINE," the editorial headline declared. In an attempt to analyze the "NEA-Kline line" on federal aid, the editorial attacked an NEA booklet entitled "Taxes Are Good" as a "forgery" and "hopelessly irrational." The editorial argued that despite "highly satisfactory" teacher salaries "the big teachers' lobby that sees in federal aid another pot of gold at the end of a rainbow" has become so greedy that "it wouldn't hesitate to sell our free system into the bondage of federal bureaucracy." Furthermore, the editorial warned, "once teachers go on the federal payroll, how could they possibly view the world around them in terms other than central government solutions to all economic and social problems? And how could they but indoctrinate their pupils with this same philosophy?" In a note of assurance to the nation, the editorial declared:

> So that the rest of the country doesn't get the wrong impression about the source of such strange doctrine, it should be pointed out Miss Kline does not represent the

> thinking of the community from which she comes, the school board that employs her or the heads of business who contribute so much to the financial support of Waukesha's public school system.

The lure of federal gold, and the schemes of a "national lobby" whose favor Washington is "currying" were also themes of an editorial in the Waterbury (Conn.) Republican (circulation 23,000). The editorial entitled "CURRYING FAVOR" took its cue from President Kennedy's convention message which, it declared, "must have sounded like happy words to the pedagogues, but opponents of the Kennedy package react sharply to the blandishments of federal munificance." The editorial took special exception to "the scheme to make the federal bureaucracy responsible for partial payment of teachers' salaries."

A long editorial in the Little Rock Arkansas Democrat (circulation 88,000) also started out stating that President Kennedy "told the teachers exactly what they wanted to hear." It envisaged federal aid leading to federal control "by hooking local school financing to appropriations handed out by the U.S. Office of Education." On that assumption, it forecast a conflict between the USOE and the NEA in which the NEA was cast in the role of holding out for lower standards of teacher certification.

And the Charleston (S.C.) Post (circulation 35,000) warned Southern white educators that federal aid would lead to "compulsory integration." "Should the measure be enacted," the editorial warned, "proponents of compulsory integration would work through the executive and judicial branches of the government to achieve their aims . . . . The NEA, controlled by non-Southern members, could be counted to do all in its power in that direction."

Desegregation

The issue of school desegregation touches on raw nerves of the economic and political, as well as the educational structure of the nation. Ever since the Supreme Court desegregation decision of 1954, it has been a controversial issue of NEA conventions. Proposals to support the Supreme Court decision had been defeated at each convention. The press was primed for another battle in Atlantic City.

Following the Los Angeles convention of 1960, the NEA Board of Directors ordered the Committee on Resolutions to work with affiliates in the Southern States -- Negro as well as white -- in an effort to formulate a "strong" resolution.

The resolution submitted at Atlantic City with the support of all but one member of the Resolutions Committee, again made no reference to the Supreme Court decision. The floor discussion was lengthy but one-sided. More than thirty delegates spoke in favor of the resolution or of amendments to strengthen it. As finally passed, the resolution contained an amendment pledging "continued support of the U.S. Supreme Court decision." Only one delegate spoke against the substance of the resolution.

The desegregation "debate" received considerable advance buildup in the press. All in all, the issue attracted more front-page space and headline-

and-lead attention than any other at the convention (see Appendix II-B-8, Table 11). Five wire stories accounted for more than two-thirds of the entire coverage.

The majority of the country's news readers received their only hint of efforts to place the NEA squarely on the side of the Supreme Court from the last paragraph of an AP story released on the morning of the final debate. The story concluded:

> Delegates from both Chicago and Arizona have said they will speak from the floor in an effort to get a much stronger resolution adopted. Although their chances of success appear slim, they may be able to get a floor fight started.

The next day, three wire stories announced passage of the resolution. "Strongest stand" and "firm support" were the terms used to characterize the action. No mention was made of the defeat of attempts to initiate action, rather than only pledge "continued support" (for the first time) to the Supreme Court decision. None of the over 30 floor speeches made in support of the resolution or of moves to strengthen it was cited in the stories. Instead, the only quote went to the sole opposition speaker, Bert Ishee, a high school principal from North Carolina. He was cited as pleading for "more time" and against "outside pressure" in 130 stories of over 11 million combined circulation.

This made Bert Ishee the best publicized individual at the convention. It also made it easier for Southern papers to play up the opposition in such headlines as "NEA MEET / FIGHTS 'MIX' / RESOLUTION," and "STATE DELEGATE OPPOSES / NEA SCHOOLS RESOLUTION."

The headlining of the news in Southern papers followed a consistent pattern. The term "integration" appeared in headlines only in the context of words indicating resistance, opposition, or lack of unanimity. When the headline reported support of desegregation, only the terms "mix" or "mixing" were used, as in "NEA BACKS MIX POLICY," "NEA SUPPORTS / ORDER TO MIX," or "NEA STAMPS MIXING APPROVAL." The only variations on this Southern pattern were headlines announcing that the NEA stand was "firm" or has been "reaffirmed," without indicating what the stand was.

*

Although one-third of all stories written about the convention noted the desegregation move, only five editorials, or one out of every eighteen commented on the issue.

Two editorials applauded the action but called it "mild" and "belated." These were published in the Des Moines (Iowa) Tribune (circulation 128,000) and the Lincoln (Neb.) Journal (circulation 43,000). Three southern papers commented on the issue.

The Charleston (S.C.) Post (circulation 355,000) called the NEA stand "not surprising" as "that organization is the chief lobby that has been urging a federal school aid program which would lead to still further government control and meddling in public education." The editorial declared that

> . . . Southern educators who oppose compulsory integration and at the same time call for federal aid work at cross-purposes, however unwittingly. In demands for federal money and for desegregation the National Education Association strays far from the field of education.

In a reference to desegregation the Greenville (S.C.) News (circulation 80,000) hinted that among "beneficial side effects" of an educational television demonstration linking South Carolina with the Atlantic City convention might be a realization that ETV offers education without integration. "Perhaps some of those present from other parts of the nation will realize," the editorial said, ". . . that South Carolina is determined to educate its children, regardless of color or creed and despite agitation for changes in its social patterns."

The Thomasville (Ga.) Times-Enterprise (circulation 8,000) argued that NEA approval of desegregation "should be sufficient reason for Southern educators to drop their membership in that outfit." The editorial warned:

> Control of the nation's schools has long been the aim of those who would subvert the thinking of the American people and there are many who believe that the Communist element in this country is trying to use the integration issue as a part of the over-all brain-washing program, for controlling the minds of our young people and the acts of many of our educators.

"Complacency," communism, academic freedom

The "issue" of "complacency" was in the headlines and leads of 49 stories printed in nearly four million combined circulation. Most of these came from an AP wire report of a speech by U.S. Commissioner of Education Sterling McMurrin, which began:

> ATLANTIC CITY, N.J. (AP) — The American people are so complacent they have not even begun to sense the importance of education to the nation's future, says Sterling M. McMurrin, U.S. commissioner of education.

The story continued with McMurrin's warning of "the deadly seriousness with which the Communist nations are taking the task of obliterating the freedom of the individual in our society."

References to communism from all convention sources were noted in stories of over six million combined circulation, and headlined in more than two million. All other "political" topics combined -- rightwing threats to public education, academic freedom, teachers in politics, the U.S. Office of Education -- failed to match the headline-and-lead circulation of references to communism. (See Appendix II-B-9, Table 12.)

For every eight items alerting "complacent" Americans to the dangers of communism, there was one story featuring reports of stepped-up rightwing attacks on education across the country. Nine stories noted, but none headlined, discussion of threats to academic freedom.

Five stories -- three of them syndicated through the New York Times News Service -- reported an interview with Edwin W. Davis, Associate Secretary of the NEA Commission for the Defense of Democracy Through Education. (The Defense Commission also presented several reports to the convention, including one circulated in advance, but none was reported in the press.)

Two of the stories were filed by correspondents for the Milwaukee Journal (circulation 369,400) and the Baltimore Sun (circulation 201,000). All five stories carried essentially the same information and played it the same way. The Times story lead stated:

> ATLANTIC CITY -- Ideological attacks on the nation's public schools have increased sharply this year, the National Education Association was told today.
>
> In quantity and in variety, according to Edwin W. Davis, the N.E.A. Defense Commission's associate secretary for special studies, the attacks are strongly reminiscent of those in the early Fifties, when the late Senator Joseph R. McCarthy was conducting investigations.
>
> "We went through the McCarthy period and now we have the John Birch era," Dr. Davis said in an interview after addressing a meeting at the N.E.A. convention here. "In the name of anti-communism and anti-socialism, these people lash out at everybody from Eisenhower and Kennedy to the local school teachers."

As syndicated by the Times News Service, the first word was changed from "ideological" to "destructive," and the third paragraph on "McCarthy period and . . . John Birch era" was omitted.

U.S. Office of Education

The two top officials of the U.S. Office of Education spoke at the convention. None of the stories which carried news of Commissioner McMurrin's talk contained reference to the aims or tasks of the agency he heads.

All but one of the 12 stories which featured the U.S. Office as such, cited New Jersey Commissioner Raubinger's attack upon it. "Raubinger accused the U.S. Department /sic./ of Education of trying to standardize curriculum and teaching practices," said one story. Raubinger "criticized the U.S. Office of Education for its recent publication 'A Federal Education Agency for the Future,'" explained another.

Assistant U.S. Commissioner Homer D. Babbidge gave the convention an account of the reorganization plan outlined in "A Federal Agency for the Future." The occasion was the Awards Luncheon of the Education Writers Association. No newspaper reported the speech. The only references to Babbidge, who resigned from the U.S. Office a few months later, could be found in the last paragraph of a New York Times post-convention story, and in a post-convention education column in the New York Herald Tribune.

Curriculum and teaching issues

Most of the convention program was devoted to curriculum and teaching. Only about one-fifth of the convention press coverage featured such topics in headlines and leads. Communication technology topics attracted the lion's share of that press attention. Here are the number and circulation of stories headlining curriculum and teaching topics, and all convention topics:*

HEADLINE AND LEAD REFERENCE TO:	Circ. in 1000's	No. of stories	Ave. Circ. per story in 1000's
Communication technology topics	14,943	193	77
Other curriculum and teaching topics	9,630	123	78
Total curriculum and teaching topics	24,573	316	78
All convention topics	127,876	2,014	63

The convention theme of "Promising New Practices in Education" was barely noticeable in the press coverage. Most press attention went to the sharpest attacks on educational practices, both new and old. Editorial comment followed suit in numbers and circulation much greater than that devoted to other convention issues.

A free-swinging blast against "machines," delivered by the chief educational officer of the host state, captured all the front-page space, most of the headlines, and the major share of news and editorial attention given to curriculum and teaching topics.

The major source of stories featuring the theme of "teacher vs. the machine" was an AP dispatch printed by 91 papers in over 7½ million copies. The theme was explicitly recognized in at least one headline which spelled out "TEACHERS VS. MACHINES" over the story. A check of all terms used in headlines showed "GADGETS" and "GIMMICKS" lead in frequency of usage, (used in 32 and 29 headlines, respectively), followed by "ACADEMIC TRICKS" and "PROPS," "IMPERSONALIZED" and "DEHUMANIZED" schools and teaching, "CANNED," "MECHANIZED" and "MACHINE" teaching or education or methods. Typical combinations were "PEDDLED LIKE SOAP; / TEACHING DEVICES LASHED: / DEHUMANIZED GADGETS"; or "MACHINES NO SUBSTITUTE FOR TEACHERS," or "EDUCATORS RAP MACHINE USE."

A count of headline verbs used to indicate what "educators" did with "machines" showed "HIT," "RAP," "LASH," "BLAST," "ATTACK," "CRITICIZE," and "ASSAIL," leading with frequencies ranging from five to fourteen. These were followed by "DEPLORE," "RIP," "FLAY," "SCORE," "LAMBAST," and "DECRY." The arsenal of headline terms was supplemented by having "machines" declared "THREAT TO STUDENT," "DAMAGING TO CHILDREN," and "HANDED DUNCE CAP," or education seen as their "VICTIM."

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*More detailed tabulations can be found in Appendix II-B-9 and 10, Tables 13 and 14.

The news coverage gave the subject the dramatic twist of a great human battle. Fourteen editorial writers rose to the occasion in thirty-eight editorials of over a million combined circulation. This was twice the amount of editorial comment devoted to the major national issues of federal aid and desegregation combined. Most of the editorials rushed to the defense of the embattled teacher, or indicted the implacable education "machine," or both. Some espoused "progress" seen as blocked by "diehard" educators not sufficiently concerned with "teacher productivity." Still others declared plague on both houses, wondering whether -- with all these "alarming words for parents and taxpayers" -- the tax money "spent for education these days is being spent sensibly," anyhow.*

Little was said about "promising new practices" in the press coverage. A wide range of miscellaneous remarks on teaching was noted in 204 stories; 174 of these cited attacks on various non-technological practices and methods. Dr. Jonas Salk's address was reported in 14 papers. Five special stories cited critical remarks on mathematics teaching experiments. Two stories discussed a report on the advantages of metropolitan schools for "gifted children." And, although there was an unreported convention session on "The Year-Round School," 21 stories headlined an off-the-cuff retort by Sir Ronald Gould in response to a question on that subject. "Do you consider that your schools are factories?" Sir Ronald quipped. "Are they plants that must produce continuously in order to be profitable?"

Professional issues and community relations

Professional issues and community relations were featured in less than 6 percent of all convention stories. More than two-thirds of the over seven million circulation headlining these issues were devoted to the "debate" over teachers' "right to strike" and to the NEA's "rivalry" with the American Federation of Teachers:**

HEADLINE AND LEAD REFERENCE TO:	Circ. in 1000's	No. of stories	Ave. Circ. per story in 1000's
"Strike" issue, "urban problems" (rivalry with A F of T)	4,994	70	71
All other professional and community issues (relations with parents; certification; teacher training, salaries, shortage; code of ethics)	2,124	36	163
Total professional issues	7,118	106	67
All convention topics	127,876	2,014	63

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*For a detailed account see Gerbner, 1963A, B.

**More detailed tabulations can be found in Appendix II-B-10, Table 15.

The bulk of news on the "right to strike" and labor rivalry themes consisted of advance stories predicting a clash over these issues. They originated mostly in interviews with NEA officials presumably having inside information on upcoming controversial resolutions. Typical headlines spoke of "TEACHERS AT / ODDS OVER / USING STRIKE"; "NEA TO FACE / STRIKE RIGHT"; and "TEACHERS 'NO STRIKE' / PLEDGE BEFORE NEA."

The Associated Press forecast "strong debate." A story in the Baltimore (Md.) Sun (circulation 201,000), typical of several filed by special correspondents, stated under the subhead "MAJOR CONVENTION FIGHT / PREDICTED FOR TOMORROW."

No floor fight of any kind developed the next day. A resolution calling for teacher participation in salary and other policy-making carried easily. The resolution was amended to recommend a board of review "as the means of resolving extreme differences"; it did not specifically preclude the use of strike as originally submitted.

The only editorial commenting on the "strike issue" was based on advance publicity and the original wording of the resolution, rather than on the relatively unpublicized and stronger final version. Even so, it was an attack on the suggestion that teachers participate in school system decision-making.

The editorial appeared in the Freeport (Tex.) Brazosport Facts (circulation 7,300). It was entitled "SCHOOL GROUP CHIPS / AT BOARD AUTHORITY." Commending the convention "from the academic standpoint" as "an effective method for disseminating new techniques and methods to the nation," the editorial went on: "But the NEA has never left anyone in doubt but that its primary function was political rather than professional." Noting NEA support for "broad federal participation in the financing in education," the editorial remarked that "This year the NEA board of directors is carrying a step further an apparent lack of confidence in local school boards." Despite the fact that the resolution specifically acknowledged the legal authority of school boards, the editorial asserted that if both federal and teacher "participation" objectives "of this organization were achieved, there would be little point in having a school board at all." The comment ended on a note of taxpayer exasperation: "If the federal government is to provide uniform standards and financing, and a faculty organization must be in accord with what local decisions remain, there is little prerogative left for the representative of the taxpayer."

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Relations with parents, teacher certification standards, salaries, teacher shortage, teacher education, and a teacher code of ethics were other professional and community issues featured in the convention press coverage. All these issues combined achieved less than half the headline-and-lead circulation of the strike and other "labor" issues. However, some were noted in the body of a large number of stories. (See Appendix II-B-10, Table 15.)

Most reference to parents came from a widely reported interview with NEA President Ewald Turner cited as lashing out at "status seekers" pushing children into adult activities. Most reference to teacher education quoted Ewald Turner as saying that "many of our teachers are dissatisfied with the courses they take in teacher education" and Commissioner McMurrin that "programs of teacher education must be drastically improved . . ."

Most references to teacher salaries came from stories on President Kennedy's message. Toward the end of one wire story, the President was cited as telling teachers that "you bear a responsibility for the nation's future that is as heavy as that of any officeholder, and that is . . . why I think it imperative that our federal aid to education program include funds for teachers' salaries." (Congressman Frank Thompson, Jr., who delivered the President's message, also took the opportunity to reiterate — unreported — that "rumors that we are preparing to abandon teachers' salaries as part of the [federal aid] bill . . . are without foundation." Shortly thereafter the teacher salary provision was dropped from the compromise bill.)

Although widely noted, the issues of salaries, certification, training, and shortage of teachers together furnished headline or lead material for only 13 stories, mostly in small-circulation papers. Preparation of a teacher code of ethics was noted in eight stories, and headlined in four.

Editorial comment on teachers was scarce and scattered, even if sometimes pointed. The Columbia _Missourian_ (circulation 6,000) waxed indignant about children "taught by C plus teachers." The Waukesha (Wis.) _Daily_ _Freeman_ (circulation 15,000) implied that there was no teacher shortage and that teachers' salary raises were out of proportion. It commented that over the last seven years

> school enrollments in the U.S. increased 29 percent and the number of teachers with qualifying certificates increased 40 percent. Salaries of teachers in the same period rose 106 percent while salaries of federal employees gained 73 percent and wages of all workers went up 91 percent.*

The Bangor (Maine) _News_ (circulation 76,000) scored teachers such as those the New Jersey and Maine Commissioners of Education attacked at the convention as "being overpaid." A syndicated editorial printed in five small circulation papers compared teachers' salaries with bonuses paid to baseball players, commenting that "It's quite a contrast, especially since the upgraded bonuses don't improve the quality of the ballplaying." The editorial also noted a suggestion for higher teacher certification standards and warned that "This upgrading would place an added financial burden on the person dedicated to the teaching career." An editorial in the Fayetteville N.W. Arkansas Times (circulation 11,400) dedicated its comments "To The Teachers," whose role in society, it stressed, "is difficult to over-estimate." The Kansas City Kansan (circulation 29,000) commended teachers for expending "considerable energy and several days of their Summer vacation in extensive talk about education." "Whatever else may be said of them," the editorial concluded, "it cannot be charged that teachers are not interested in their work." And an editorial in the Champaign (Ill.) News Gazette (circulation 29,000) reviewed figures on salaries and the teacher shortage and concluded with equally restrained enthusiasm:

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*Actually, between 1954 and 1960, school enrollments increased from 33.4 million to 42.9 million, an increase of 28.4 percent. The number of teachers in the same period increased from 1,032 to 1,352, an increase of 31 percent. Teachers' salaries rose from an average of $3,605 in 1954 to $4,995 in 1960, an increase of 38.5 percent. At the same time average wages of all workers went from $3,628 to $4,644, an increase of 28 percent. The _Daily Freeman_ cited no sources, but some of the figures are the same as those included in the House Education and Labor Committee report in the supplemental views of Rep. Charles E. Goodell (R., N.Y.), also opposed to the bill, but claiming a _20-year_ rather than a 7-year-period. Even so, over a 20-year-period, teacher salaries increased 387 percent, and all wages increased 379 percent; the difference between the two is 2 percent of the higher increase rather than 14 percent of the higher increase as the _Daily_ _Freeman_ and Rep. Goodell argued. (_Health Education and Welfare Trends, 1961._ Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1961, pp. 36, 37, 48, and 50.)

> For those putting service above wealth, and satisfaction above some of the greater emoluments that might come from other endeavors, teaching has its good points.
>
> And this may be a field in which employment opportunities are good for many years to come.

The speakers

Speakers make news. News also makes speakers. The most widely quoted "speaker" of the convention was the President of the United States who did not attend in person. The best publicized name of those actually present was not even listed on the program. It was Bert Ishee, delegate from North Carolina, who was cited speaking in opposition to the desegregation resolution in more than 11 million copies of stories printed in 130 papers.

The ten most frequently cited speakers in the convention press coverage (see Appendix II-B-6, Table 7) also included New Jersey Education Commissioner Frederick M. Raubinger in third place with nearly ten million copies of 134 stories lashing educational "machines," and Professor Van Til in fourth place with nearly as much news copy "echoing" Raubinger. Over seven million copies of 86 stories placed Professor Edgar Dale of the Ohio State University in the position of supporting charges by Raubinger and Van Til. Almost as many stories featured U.S. Commissioner McMurrin lashing out at complacency, communism, and teachers' training. Over five million copies of stories stressed Senator Morse's elicited attack on the Catholic church, but few cited his remarks on federal aid legislation. Nearly as many stories had Principal Frank Brown "blast grade schools," and NEA President Ewald Turner "rap" teaching and "hit" parents. Only outgoing NEA President Clarice Kline made the top ten without attacking anybody (but also without getting the burden of her speech on the need for federal aid into the stories).

Five of the ten major addresses delivered before the Representative Assembly were not reported at all. Ewald Turner's plea for "greater visibility to . . . efforts and achievements" found little response in the press. An education writer's impression of the "professional image" which did emerge was summarized in the headline of a convention roundup article in the New York Herald Tribune. The headline said:

SCHOOL ISSUES
PUZZLE EXPERTS

PITY THE PARENTS, IF EVEN EDUCATORS
DISAGREE ON JUST ABOUT EVERYTHING

Some conclusions

Our case study of the press coverage of a major annual educational event of national scope supports some findings noted in earlier chapters. The institutional structure and relationships of the press shaped the coverage of this national event in ways not necessarily characteristic of the reporting of local events.

Despite the presence of 28 reporters, wire service copy dominated national coverage. Ten wire stories alone accounted for almost half the combined circulation of all 2,240 stories. Simple "visibility" publicity of organizational significance but little relevance to issues comprised about one-third of the combined circulation of all stories.

Federal aid and school desegregation were the national political issues in the limelight. However, the press treatment accorded to the two issues differed considerably.

Federal aid was stressed in messages by the president of the United States and of the NEA. It was featured in news releases and a news conference, emphasized in numerous speeches during the week, discussed and voted on in the Representative Assembly. It was also the subject of what the Administration termed "probably the most important piece of domestic legislation" then pending in Congress. Desegregation, on the other hand, was mentioned in no news releases, and noted in few major speeches. There were no press conferences or other attempts to dramatize the issue. Yet when it came to reporting the convention, there were nearly as many stories filed featuring the desegregation issue as there were on the much more numerous federal aid events. When the stories arrived at the home offices, editors picked nearly seven desegregation stories for every four federal aid stories. Editors also gave front-page prominence to fifteen desegregation stories for every five federal aid stories.

Demonstration of the case for federal aid to schools was the major single effort of the convention. The kick-off news conference was prepared by nationwide mailing of factual background information indicating clear and present need. But such publicity as was given to facts of the case emphasized the mounting "burden on taxpayers" and "fears of federal control."

Editorials warned of the "blandishments of federal munificence" or yearning [illegible] of "teacher lobbyist" to "fast talk" Congress "out of some cash." The school aid bill was seen as only the beginning of a "sensational fiscal binge." "The logical inference" was drawn that teachers would not hesitate blackmailing "parents and taxpayers," or even "sell our free system into the bondage of a federal bureaucracy" to grab "another pot of gold at the end of a rainbow."

Editorial defenders of local control also exhibited particular sensitivity to what one editorial called "the scheme to make the federal bureaucracy responsible for partial payment of teachers' salaries." As another editorial warned, "once teachers go on the federal payroll, how could they possibly view the world around them in terms other than central government solutions to all economic and social problems? And how could they but indoctrinate their pupils with the same philosophy?"

Several convention reports documented the nation's need and ability to improve teacher pay depressed by local tax limits. None of these was featured in the press coverage. Reference to "overpaid" teachers and "highly satisfactory" salaries counterpointed the "ingratitude" of an NEA President who, an editorial hastened to point out, "does not represent the thinking of the community from which she comes, the school board that employs her or the heads of business who contribute so much to the financial support" of schools.

The pattern of press coverage tipped the odds in favor of playing up the "conflict angle" also in the desegregation issue despite the virtual unanimity of the convention. Two scheduled convention speeches touched on the issue. These references were made by Negro speakers (The Rev. Robinson of New York, and the head of NEA's segregated Negro affiliates, George W. Jones) and reported only in Negro papers. But when the resolution came up on the floor, it became the biggest front-page and headline attraction of the convention.

When widely predicted "floor fights" failed to materialize, the most frequently selected wire stories "balanced" news of the resolution by citing only the opposition speaker. Passage of an amendment pledging (for the first time) "continued support" of the Supreme Court order was hailed as "strong" and "firm" action. Narrow defeat of another amendment which would in fact have directed officers to "plan and initiate action" was scarcely noted.

Sensational charges against "machines" -- federal, teaching, professional -- claimed third place in the amount and prominence of press attention, and first place in editorial comment. Some of the sharpest barbs of the convention news and editorial coverage were directed against federal "machines." The specific target of most of this criticism was the U.S. Office of Education.

The press crusade against the "machine" was likely to arouse fears and frustrations about the quality of education -- and of life -- in a technological age. These fears were coupled with popular anxieties about Madison Avenue bogeymen "peddling" "gimmicks and gadgets" like "soap, cigarets and toothpaste," and "ghostly voices whispering persuasively over headphones" in Johnny's classroom. "The NEA bleats" were editorially judged "undeserving much public sympathy." All these "alarming words for parents and taxpayers" made the editorial "layman wonder if all the additional money being spent for education these days is being spent sensibly."

Most news and editorial items rallied to the side of teachers in a mythical struggle against "machines" of all but the locally prevalent kinds. But the editorial pattern was also peppered with references to "a profession already mechanized by tired dogma" and peopled by "C-plus teachers" "who merely parrot their lectures, who fail to inspire" or who are even bent on "self-serving behind a tender disguise -- 'those little boys and girls.'"

A drama of national conflicts unfolded in the press coverage. The crises swirled about the head of that central figure of editorial speech, the stalwart but hapless "taxpayer." Robot-like forces seemed to tug at his reins of "local control." The most acceptable release was to rouse him from his "complacency" in the face of the "communist menace." Stories in over six million circulation alerted Americans to the dangers of communism. "Complacency" or communism were headlined in 83 stories. Only 10 stories featured reports of increased rightwing attacks on education, and nine noted -- but none headlined -- threats to academic freedom reported from many communities.

Menace to "freedom" in general was most likely to become the theme when the threat could be attributed to distant foes, to external or internal "centralizers," to forces trying to wrest "federal gold" and the minds of teachers and pupils out of the control of local powers.

There was no mention of the keynote of Miss Kline's theme that "the most vicious kind of control" over education is achieved "by the simple expedient of withholding the necessary funds for a quality program."

The convention's purpose was to call attention to professional efforts and achievements in education. Its urgent message to the nation was that joint planning and vigorous action were needed to relieve national inequalities, shortages, deficiencies, and deterioration in many areas of educational opportunity and quality. The general pattern of the press coverage precluded the clear development of any such message. The pattern of institutional behavior recorded in the press coverage revealed economic pressures and a crossing of purposes. The NEA's approach to national problems of American education appeared to clash with news values serving commodity markets, and with the producing industries' dominant ways of construing the public interest. On most national issues affecting client relationships and institutional interests the voice which spoke to the nation through the press coverage as a whole was more that of the press than that of organized education in America.

CHAPTER IV

EDUCATION AND THE PRESS IN A COMPARATIVE PERSPECTIVE: GREAT BRITAIN, FRANCE, AND THE SOVIET UNION

Mass media message systems are industrial products in symbolic forms. They are outcomes of institutional processes, organizational and personal relationships, and individual efforts and skills. They are produced in the context of cultural traditions and historical situations and in response to specific events. As we have noted before, all these aspects need to be considered in any attempt to comprehend the flow of mass-produced information and images in modern society, but not all are amenable to the same type of investigation.

This chapter combines (1) an attempt to explore the institutional, cultural, and historical contexts salient to the more formal comparative analyses reported in subsequent chapters, and (2) presentation of the statements of educational and mass media personnel themselves. The intention was to construct the general contexts as they might appear to informed persons who live and work in them rather than as they might seem to others or from any single partisan or national point of view. The views of our informants about their own work and problems will be presented again in their own words, transcribed from interviews conducted by the investigator and his staff.

Although interviews were conducted in all countries and media included in this project, limitations of space and time made it necessary to restrict this report to selected areas. The purpose of the selection was to further illuminate key factors shaping mass media representations of the educational enterprise, at least in their informational aspects, in different societies.

The interviews were neither standardized nor particularly focused. Very early in the process it became apparent that a rigidly structured schedule of questions would only inhibit the free flow of discussion. We could learn more by letting the informant channel the flow in the direction of his interests, problems, and pressures.

Consequently, the interviews did not necessarily cover the same ground, as indeed they could not; the ground was not everywhere the same. As we have pointed out before, the purpose of these discussions was not to "test" our informants but to enlist them as responsible officials and experts to help us probe into the nature of ideas, contacts, pressures, and other influences shaping public representations of education. The interviews were thus necessarily uneven in quality and quantity as well as in focusing on different areas of work and experience. They also ranged from personal and "confidential" views to expressions of official policy. These differences themselves may be taken as indicative of the institutional contexts, as well as personal backgrounds, from which the information came. The standard procedure was again to assure the anonimity of sources whether requested or not.

This resulted in a vagueness of identification which was at times awkward and even disturbing but unavoidable. Interviews were not recorded on the spot but transcribed from notes immediately afterward.

Great Britain

The major centers of communication activity involving education in Great Britain are the Ministry of Education, the National Union of Teachers, the largest Local Education Authorities, the broadcasting networks, and the national newspapers. Our interviews focused on the activities of the N.U.T.'s Publicity and Public Relations Department. Conversations were also held with Ministry, broadcasting and newspaper personnel. Records and publications of these organizations, and other published and unpublished sources were also consulted in preparing this report. Particularly helpful, aside from the sources cited, were data supplied by the Reference Division, Central Office of Information, and by the Union of Journalists.

Against a background of a brief look at the institutional structure of education and the press, we shall report our observations and interviews at the Ministry, the N.U.T., and the newspapers. Some of the major events influencing school-press relations and reflected in content studies will be described as we discuss the activities of these organizations and the views of their personnel.

Complementing these aspects of the representation of education in the British national press is a case study of education news content and the comparative content analysis of education news in eight countries reported in Chapter V.

The schools and the press

Educational resource decision-making for England and Wales is largely centralized on the national level. At the same time, a high degree of professional autonomy and traditionalism leaves teaching and administration relatively free from both local and national dictation.

About 60 percent of the cost of schools and 80 percent of universities comes from nationally collected, allocated, and supervised tax funds. The Minister of Education, a cabinet member of the government party, reports to and is answerable in Parliament on all questions affecting education. However, his chief responsibilities are the disbursement of national funds under an equalization formula based on local need, and the inspection of compliance with minimum educational standards. He also operates informational services. The Ministry does not run schools, employ teachers, or determine curriculum.

The basic geo-political unit of educational administration is the Local Education Authority, usually an arm of the county or borough council. The L.E.A. has no Superintendent and (with few notable exceptions such as the London Authority) no professional PR personnel to cultivate relations with the local press and power structure. It does not represent a medium of local control to the extent of its American schoolboard counterpart. Teacher representatives serve on most L.E.A.'s. Control of the curriculum is usually the prerogative of the headmaster of each school. Basic salary scales are developed nationally through a centralized bargaining group composed of representatives of the L.E.A.'s and the teachers' unions, whose awards the government usually accepts.

The crucial client relationships are, then, national in scope. They center in Parliament and are discharged by a government Ministry through a process involving local resources, traditions, and interests. The Ministry of Education also performs central supervisory functions. But these are severely limited by custom and by the British conception of professional autonomy. The efforts of the National Union of Teachers have successfully divested government of its teacher examining powers, and have protected most teachers from the local introduction of political tests for employment. An authoritative history describes the Ministry's inspector as

> now at worst a nuisance whose enthusiasm for his pet "fads," "activities," "projects," and "courses" can be readily appeased, and at best (and it generally is at best) a helpful senior colleague. While there is some talk of administrative interference and petty bureaucracy, the general tendency appears to be towards a lifting of existing restrictions rather than an imposing of new ones. Finally, the teachers as individuals and a professional group have never accepted their "employers'" views on what should be taught in the schools as more than rough guides. As Sir Ronald Gould has written:
>
> "I have heard it said that the existence in this country of 146 strong, vigorous L.E.A.'s safeguards democracy and lessens the risks of dictatorship. No doubt this is true but an even greater safeguard is the existence of a quarter of a million teachers who are free to decide what should be taught and how it should be taught."*

Professional freedom and national power does not mean that British education enjoys abundant support or a robust institutional position. On the contrary, it suffers from perennial financial crises, the continuing effects of class barriers, and severely limited (and unequally distributed) opportunities for higher education.

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*Asher Tropp, The School Teachers; The Growth of the Teaching Profession in England and Wales from 1800 to the Present Day. London: William Heinemann Ltd., 1957. Pp. 269-270.

The national scope of institutional relationships means primarily that vigorous educational debate and deliberation are prominent and integral parts of the national political process. Education is a major issue in political platforms and campaigns, a frequent subject of Parliamentary debate and inquiry, and a focal point of social and political -- as well as educational -- reform movements.

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Education thus plays an important role in the national press. The client relationships of the dominant newspapers are also national in scope. They center in political parties and in the major industrial concentrations. Since the "Northcliff revolution" at the turn of the century, the British press has largely completed the transition from party to commercial press without, however, giving up political orientation.

The national morning and Sunday press may be divided into three groups: "quality," "popular," and "tabloid." The "quality" group of papers (so called because the high "quality" consumer standing of their readers attracts national advertising regardless of the relatively low circulation of some of the papers in the group) include the nominally independent London Times, and The Observer; the Liberal Manchester Guardian; and the conservative Daily Telegraph and Sunday Times. The "popular" papers with national circulation in the millions are the "independent" Daily Express, Sunday Express, The People, and News of the World; the conservative Daily Mail; and the labor-oriented Daily Herald and Reynolds News. All but the last two are primarily advertiser-supported. The labor papers (and, of course, the Communist Daily Worker) rely on reader contributions and other subsidies as much as, if not more than, on advertising revenues. The "tabloids" reaching perhaps the lowest income readership with the most sensational appeal (except for the evening papers) are the conservative Daily Sketch and the vaguely "left of center" Daily Mirror and Sunday Pictorial.

Reviewing the report of the 1962 Royal Commission on the Press, John Tebbel commented that while, as in the U.S., the

> general tone of the press is conservative . . . there is much more criticism of the Conservative government in Britain among its newspaper supporters than a Republican government would ever have to endure in this country. Left wing newspapers in Britain are far more vigorous than in America, and in fact the Daily Herald and Daily Mirror, under the same ownership, give nearly 6,000,000 readers this point of view every morning. . . . By contrast, the entire circulation of the liberal press in America would not come near that figure.*

The Ministry of Education

Educational public relations, information services, and reporting are postwar phenomena in Great Britain. Press officers were appointed to government ministries during the war, and departments of information developed with the enactment of massive social welfare legislation, including Education Acts, of the mid-forties and fifties. The chief information officer of the Ministry of Education attributed the growing need for information services to the rising educational aspirations of the general public, the consequent newsworthiness of educational affairs, and to the expectation that educational expenditures by the end of the sixties would come to equal the cost of national defense.

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*John Tebbel, "How the British View Their Press," Saturday Review, December 8, 1962, p. 68.

The Ministry's Information Department (often working through the government's Central Office of Information), assists the Minister of Education in representing the government's educational policy in the House of Commons and in interpreting it to the general public. The Department also serves some 146 Local Education Authorities across the country. The routine activities of the Department's staff of about 12 civil service professionals include press releases, liaison with all media, and the publication of its own periodicals, pamphlets, and leaflets. The Department also handles 20-30,000 personal and telephone inquiries a year, arranges displays and exhibits, cooperates in the production of informational and documentary films, and conducts educational visits and conferences for individuals and groups from all parts of the country and the world.

Special tasks center in government White Papers and the reports of Royal Commissions and Advisory Councils which stimulate public interest and legislative developments in education. Campaigns on special subjects are also conducted through releases, publications, and the facilities provided by the British Broadcasting Corporation.

For example, such a campaign was announced in January, 1961 in a widely publicized "Appeal from the Minister of Education to qualified women teachers," printed in leaflet form over the Minister's signature. The appeal also sketched in broad outline one of the major problems of British education in the early sixties. It said:

> Last year about 17,000 women teachers came into our schools and about 15,000 went out of them. Some of those who left were retiring after thirty or forty years' service, but most were younger women who left to marry and have families. There seems no doubt that a new tradition of earlier marriage and earlier families has come to stay.
>
> This sets a problem because the schools must always have very large numbers of women teachers. We are doubling the size of the teacher-training colleges. This will help a lot but cannot be the complete answer while so many young women teachers continue to leave the service. From now on we must persuade far more of them to come back to the schools, either full time or part time, for a second spell of service when their family responsibilities permit.
>
> A good many married women do already come back to teaching, but not nearly as many as are needed. The schools want many more at once and for as long ahead as we can see. There is a special need in 1962. In that year there will be no normal output of newly trained teachers from the general

training colleges because of the introduction in September, 1960 of the three-year training course, and the number of primary school children will be increasing.

This means an exceptional year of very severe staffing difficulties, particularly in the primary schools.

If you have already taught you will agree that there is real satisfaction in doing a job which meets a great need and at the same time makes full use of your education, your training, and your professional skill.

There are sure to be questions to which you will want to know the answers before you can decide to come back to teaching. The most general questions are dealt with in this leaflet. Your own local education authority will be able to tell you about the actual posts open to you and they will also be able to give you the facts about the salary you will be entitled to.

I do hope that you can help.

A six-month content study reported in the next chapter found that this announcement contributed to making the discussion of teacher shortage and training the largest single subject category of education news content in the national press.

The National Union of Teachers

The National Union of Teachers has a voluntary membership of nearly a quarter million, or over three-fourths of all teachers in Great Britain. The basic constituent units of the N.U.T. are its local and county associations. Representatives of these associations act on national policy matters and elect the Executive at an Annual Conference. The N.U.T. is not registered as a trade union and, in the opinion of the official Registrar of Friendly Societies, it does not fall within the statutory definition of a trade union. The N.U.T. describes itself as "neither an incorporated professional institute nor a trade union, but a teachers' professional organization . . . with functions peculiarly its own."*

N.U.T. functions and activities range over a wide variety of political, social, cultural and economic matters affecting teachers and education. Professional, welfare, and salary problems and a number of legal, insurance, and benevolent protective services are, of course, among the N.U.T.'s basic bread-and-butter concerns.

N.U.T. information services were performed by a small press bureau until 1956. That year, a Public Relations Officer was appointed. A Department of Publicity and Public Relations with a head, three professional assistants, a chief clerk and other clerical assistance was established in 1960.

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*Evans, 1962, p. 17.

This staff is concerned with public relations on the national level, internal Union publicity and publications, special conferences, and N.U.T. Parliamentary campaigns.

Every school in England and Wales receives a news sheet from the National Union of Teachers' Publicity and Public Relations Department at least three times a year. There is also a press service for some two hundred local journals or magazines. Leaflets are produced for direct distribution to Union members.

Radio and television are also used as extensively as possible. Contacts are maintained between the Department and editors and producers of BBC and ITV. The Department has also built up personal contacts with the national papers and their education reporters. The national press is regularly supplied with material; in 1960, for example, there were 170 press releases and circulars covering such topics as the supply and training of teachers, professional unity, science teaching, pensions and salaries.

N.U.T. information specialists consider their relationships on the local level more questionable than with the national press. Our informants' comments on local press relations were similar to the views of many of their American counterparts. Education, one information officer said,

> is the biggest single aspect of local government activity, so if it's true to say that local government is exposed to the winds of public opinion, the education part of it is probably even more exposed than the rest.
>
> I think we also suffer from the angry letters in the local press, like "Disgusted of Tunbridge Wells" "Indignant Ratepayer of Leamington Spa" "Mother of Five of Bootle" and so on.
>
> We also have to contend with the efforts of candidates for election to local councils who do not regard it as part of their job in the election campaigns to justify what they're spending through the rates and demanding more be spent, but seek rather to tell the public that if they're returned they will prevent the rates from rising any further and if possible will try to reduce them.
>
> I think we also suffer from the attentions of the self-appointed vigilantes, the ratepayers associations -- I always wonder why it is that ratepayers associations can never find time at their meetings to say what a good service they're getting from a local government department and from schools but seem always to find difficulties to deal with and do not function in the way in which they might if they were really intent on the good health of local government.

Campaigning on Parliamentary issues and lobbying the Government of the day are an important part of the Union's work. The Union maintains no special allegiance to any political party and divides its electoral favors. Through its Scheme of Parliamentary Representation, it is prepared to support up to four candidates from each of the three main political parties, "in order that the voice of the teacher may be heard at Westminster itself."*

In the early 1960's six Members of Parliament sat in the House of Commons with the official support of the N.U.T. There were an additional twenty Union members in the House. The Publicity and Public Relations Department regularly keeps in touch with between 60 and 70 M.P.'s particularly interested in education. All M.P.'s are, of course, circularized on specific issues of importance.

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The need for a full-time professional Public Relations Officer and a Department became evident during one of the most intensive and at least partially successful publicity campaigns conducted by the N.U.T. on the subject of teacher contributions to the superannuation (pension) fund.

In January, 1954, just as the N.U.T. was launching a long-range salary campaign, the Conservative Minister of Education proposed in the House of Commons to cover a deficit in the teachers' pension fund by increasing their contributions from 5 to 6 percent. The Union claimed that government should meet the deficit, and that local authorities should raise their own contributions to keep the scheme stable in future years. "What teachers need," declared the N.U.T., "are the tonics of encouragement and professional esteem. Instead they have suffered this new blow to their aspirations."** The decision was made to oppose the bill and wage an "arduous campaign" against it.

> At the beginning of February a letter was addressed to all Members of Parliament, setting out in detail the reasons for the Union's opposition to the suggested increase. Copies of this letter were circulated the same day to all newspapers. This was followed by the circulation of a statement made by the General Secretary at a meeting of the Durham County Association. On February 20th a resolution was passed at a Special Meeting of the Executive, rejecting the arguments advanced by the Minister of Education and this was released to the Press. On February 22nd the General Secretary of the Union held a Press Conference at the Hotel Russell, Russell Square, when a very large number of press representatives attended. They were supplied with a copy of the Union's reply to the Ministry's comments reprinted from the Union's organ. This reply was also circulated to all Members of Parliament. On March 27th at another Special Meeting of the Executive a motion was passed unanimously deciding to reject the changes suggested by the Minister and this resolution was also circulated to the Press. A further letter to Members of Parliament was issued at the end of

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*N.U.T., Teachers and Parliament, Leaflet No. 200, undated.

**Tropp, op. cit., p. 252.

> March and copies sent to all newspapers. As a result of the publicity activities outlined above over 1,000 press references to the Union's action on the proposed increase in superannuation contributions were traced. This total did not include general references to the superannuation question, but referred only to references secured as a direct result of the Union's releases to the Press.*

As a result of widespread publicity, the teachers' position "not only won support from the official opposition and the Liberals but also from a group of Conservative back-benchers who were either convinced of the justice of the teachers' case or of the influence of the teachers in their constituencies. The Bill was held up again and again. . . . The postponement of the Bill was regarded as a great triumph for the N.U.T."** The Minister of Education, Miss Florence Horsbrugh, was replaced by Sir David Eccles who announced that the government would meet the deficit if a new scheme could be agreed upon to avoid deficiencies in the future. After discussions with teacher organization, representatives of local authorities, and backed by a larger and better disciplined Conservative majority, the Minister proposed to cover the deficit. But he persisted in increasing the teachers' share by 1 percent -- and the battle continued. During the year 1955, 1,758 press references to the question of teachers' pensions were traced. The N.U.T. reported:

> These references were the direct result of Union activities, either by Headquarters or Local Associations. There was also during this period considerable editorial comment, not only in the national press, but in provincial newspapers, which was on an almost unprecedented scale. Some 200 leading articles dealt with the campaign and there was in addition a considerable number of references by columnists, and the topic was the subject of at least 16 cartoons. There were also many general references in local and national newspapers to the whole question of teachers' superannuation but in which no one teachers' organisation was mentioned. During the ten weeks ending December 31st, therefore, no less than 3,088 references to the subject appeared in the press.***

The national attention focused on the pension fund struggle did not succeed in deflecting the government from its course but it served another purpose. "Partly to rescue himself from a difficult Parliamentary situation," N.U.T. publicists told us, "Sir David Eccles said that teachers ought to be better paid and ought to go to the Burnham Committee to achieve that aim." (The Burnham Committee, named for its first chairman in 1919, is the national bargaining panel composed of representatives of local authorities and of teachers' organizations.)

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*N.U.T., Report for 1955, p. xciv.

**Tropp, op. cit., pp. 252-253.

***N.U.T., Report for 1956, p. xcvi.

The N.U.T. diverted its strategy from pensions to the salary front. "A lot of heat had been engendered and the press had fully informed the public of the feelings of the profession, but we couldn't defeat the will of Parliament," it was explained. While negotiations progressed in the Burnham Committee, there were reports of increasing dissatisfaction among the profession and threats of mass "withdrawals of service."* The result was that "after a short campaign on the salary issue we secured an improved award in the Burnham Committee, but we were helped very much by what happened in the battle on pensions."

Political scientists writing on the developments of the 1950's commented that the N.U.T. "campaign . . . was a well-directed and well-informed campaign which brought influence to bear at the vital point,"** and "the pressure . . . put the Minister in danger of a defeat in Committee unless he compromised."***

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*At the 1956 Annual Conference, less than a month before the announcement of the Burnham award, the N.U.T. President, E. L. Britton, declared in his inaugural address:

> Anyone looking at the educational scene today cannot fail to be impressed by the fact that the teaching profession is laboring under an acute feeling of frustration and bitter dissatisfaction. . . . Only those who work in the schools know how much . . . progress depended on teachers' self-sacrifice and teachers' improvisation, and teachers' willingness to accept more onerous conditions of work for the sake of better educational opportunity for the child. But the teachers know and the teachers look around and see that all the thanks they have received have been a steadily declining standard of living and a succession of ill-informed canards in press and public platform blaming the profession for juvenile delinquency, juvenile illiteracy and juvenile indiscipline and all the other ills the times are heir to. It is hardly surprising that this mounting sense of frustration should have shown itself in angry meetings, in angry public protest, and in talk of sanctions. . . . If anyone believes that this is no more than the vociferation of a few hotheads or an agitation deliberately worked up by a handful of malcontents, then they completely misread the situation. There are many teachers in all types of school who hate this talk of strikes and violent action. They feel sick at heart when they hear it for it is completely foreign to their conception of the high nature of their calling. But they no less than others feel the same sense of frustration and disappointment which is welling up within the profession today like a black flood threatening to submerge the idealism and hope and effort which should be the hall-mark of our calling. (N.U.T., Report for 1956, pp. xxxv - xxxvi.)

**John Stewart, British Pressure Groups, London: Oxford University Press, 1958, p. 121.

***S. E. Finer, Anonymous Empire, London: The Pall Mall Press Ltd., 1958, p. 91.

Not until 1961 was there another similar demonstration of the ability of the nationally organized teaching profession to direct public and political attention to their problems. In that year, for the first time since the establishment of the Burnham Committee, the government rejected the Burnham award recommending a pay increase for teachers, and also sought to secure a place for government itself in the negotiations. The move precipitated a major political crisis and caused bitter strife within the Union itself. It also revealed the editorial effects of party orientation in the national press, at least in crisis situations. The "pay pause controversy," as it was called in the press, occurred during periods of press content analyses conducted for this study and will be discussed in the next chapter.

*

The N.U.T. has from time to time directed public attention to certain aspects of popular culture and the mass media as part of its general educational concern. Two notable instances of such effort were the Union's campaign against horror comics, and its conference on "Popular Culture and Personal Responsibility."

Horror Comics. The horror comics campaign began in October, 1954, and culminated in the enactment of a Children and Young Persons (Harmful Publications) Act in June, 1955, embodying the principal aims of the campaign. The campaign included touring exhibits and the circulation of a filmstrip. N.U.T. resolutions on the subject were circulated to all Members of Parliament, as well as the press, and elicited widely publicized statements by the Minister of Education and other notables. After the successful conclusion of the campaign, the N.U.T. addressed a letter to the National Education Association of the U.S. urging American teachers to take similar steps, particularly appropriate in view of the fact that most of the horror comics circulating in England were imported from America. The N.E.A.'s reply, summarized in the N.U.T.'s Report for 1956 (p. lxxxiii), "expressed the view that people generally in the U.S. were not yet ready to try to handle the problem by legislation."

Conference on Popular Culture and Personal Responsibility. At the Annual Conference of the N.U.T. in April, 1960, a unanimously adopted resolution stated in part:

> Conference, whilst recognising the vital part played by teachers in developing the moral and cultural standards of the nation and its children, considers that this is a task in which others must co-operate.
>
> Although today more young people than ever are actively engaged in intellectual pursuits and appreciate or participate in the creation of art, literature, music and drama, Conference believes that a determined effort must be made to counteract the debasement of standards which result from the misuse of press, radio, cinema and television; the deliberate exploitation of violence and sex; and the calculated appeal to self interest.

> It calls especially upon those who use and control the media of mass communication, and upon parents, to support the efforts of teachers in an attempt to prevent the conflict which too often arises between the values inculcated in the classroom and those encountered by young people in the world outside."

As a result of the passage of this resolution, the Union was approached by a number of organizations and individuals urging that it sponsor a conference "to study the subject of the mass media and moral and cultural standards in some detail, to exchange views, and to discuss whether any action is needed and can be undertaken by the organizations concerned."*

The Conference was held in October, 1960. It was addressed by the then Home Secretary R. A. Butler, by speakers from the mass media and from education, and it was attended by representatives of nearly 300 organizations. It resulted in wide publicity (reflected in the findings of a content study discussed in the next chapter), in the dissemination of a verbatim report by the N.U.T., and in the publication of a Study Outline. The Outline (Groombridge, 1961) was to "be used by individuals and groups studying the relationships between education and the mass media, in some cases as a preliminary to arranging similar public discussions in different parts of the country, or to other forms of social action."

*

N.U.T. publicists interviewed for this study discussed the philosophy of their work and the nature of some of their problems. Their remarks centered on the need for public relations in a public service profession, the problem of tension and suspicion between newsmen and schoolmen, the organizational competition for space in the national press, the conflict between informational and commercial requirements of news treatment, the necessity to adjust to the requirements of the press, and the consequent discrepancy between "striking a note of success" in public and the real feelings of teachers about their situation.

> The level and quality of support for a public service depends on public understanding [we were told]. First and foremost we recognize that . . . education is a public service and that in a democratic society the general public must have a perfect right, indeed a duty, to be interested in what their servants are attempting to do and that the well-being of the service and the well-being of the schools very much depends on stimulating public interest and arousing public support for what the schools are trying to do. Furthermore we recognize, parents and the general public, as the people who foot the bill, have a right to know what the schools and the teachers are trying to do and what new developments and problems need to be met.
>
> Secondly we consider that the education service, good though it is already, stands in considerable need of expansion and, of course, we have the Minister's word that over the next decade the level of expenditure on education has got to

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*N.U.T. press release, July, 1960.

> double. We believe that that level of expenditure will only be achieved if we have the full support of the public.
>
> One would feel less of a need on the part of the N.U.T. to undertake publicity and public relations work if one were confident that the government and all local education authorities were in fact completely seized of the need to undertake the necessary publicity on behalf of the education service. But, in spite of the good efforts of some local education authorities and the efforts of the Ministry of Education, we do not consider that they on their own accord are doing enough. . . . We believe that the teaching profession has its own job of public relation to do. . . . Quite clearly the fact that we are engaged in a public service means that our salaries, our pensions, our conditions of employment are very much tied up with the amount of money and good will that the general public are prepared to devote to the education service. We make no bones about the fact that it is in our own self interest to persuade the public to spend more on education nationally and locally.
>
> Apart from these considerations, there are other important professional reasons why we consider it very important to develop good public relations. Any school staff would say that as a staff, as individual teachers, they are not able to do their job for children completely satisfactorily unless they have the full support and understanding of the parents of the children that they teach.

One aspect of the N.U.T. effort is the attempt to overcome suspicion and defensiveness on the part of schoolmen, our informants said.

> There is a need to overcome a distaste for publicity and fear or suspicion of mass media among teachers. Whether we like it or not, we are in a situation where we've got to know how to handle the press. Certainly one of the first things some of our members need to know is that the easiest way to get into the headlines is to decline to speak at all or to speak as a rather inferior member of the family, well below the salt.

The struggle for organizational visibility was felt to require a high level of publicity effort:

> Educational publicity is necessary for self-defense. We are living in a world of very high-powered public relations. The adman and the hidden persuaders are all about us; we cannot ignore their existence. Nor can we expect newspapers, the B.B.C., and the I.T.A. to consider that our activities, our policies, our point of view, is worthy of space purely on its own merits. In other words, although we ourselves consider

> education to be a "good thing," the newspapers don't necessarily see it that way at all. We've got to make them aware of what we are doing in competition with the efforts of many other organizations spending much more than we could ever expect to spend.

It was felt that "emphasis on the trivial and the sensational" still dominates much of the news coverage of some papers.

> While there is increasing public interest in education, and the newspapers' handling of newsworthy activities is on the whole fair and full, there is unfortunately still too much emphasis on the trivial and the sensational. All you've got to do is to send a girl home for wearing stilletto heels or a tight skirt, or a boy for wearing bluejeans or an "American style" haircut, and you'll find yourself in the headlines. News calculated only to sell papers is still blown up out of all proportion.

The strategy of public relations and the necessity to adjust to the requirements of the press may at times conceal rather than reveal the "true feelings" of teachers. The view was expressed that this discrepancy may have explosive effects.

> In the media we have to strike a note of success; in private and among teachers in general, there is a widespread feeling of frustration and failure, despite the strides made in the face of seemingly overwhelming obstacles since the war. Some of our members think that all the time we should be telling the public about our problems of oversized classes and bad buildings and so on; but that cannot be the predominant element in our publicity work. It is part of our job to remind people from time to time of the difficulties the schools have to contend with. But, on the whole, we must let them know of the successes achieved and what bigger developments and achievements would be possible given full public support.
>
> On the other hand, much-publicized "breakthroughs" in education conceal the true feelings of many in the teaching profession. When circumstances force us to point out the illusory nature of many of our "successes" and of proposed "solutions," and when the feelings of teachers erupt in the form of some dramatic development such as a strike, there is public confusion, shock, and resentment. This may well lead to further stagnation or even setbacks which the press, as a whole, has done little to avoid or to cushion.

Education correspondents

In 1950 only the laborite Daily Herald and the Daily Mirror had education correspondents, as they are called in England. By 1961 there were enough to form an association. Our interviews included one with a veteran education correspondent active in the association.

Education correspondents are normally long-time professional journalists rather than educators-turned-journalists, he said. There is no tradition of women reporters or students or teachers writing school news. The national press does not provide much routine local service coverage.

Following the pension fund controversy and other critical issues, education became a regular news source for most papers.

> It has dawned on executives, who easily get out of touch, [we were told] that the class context of education is changing, that working class boys go to the university, that higher and further education are becoming popular issues. It was found, further, that reader interest is greater when education is regularly covered by a named correspondent.
>
> An education correspondent with a byline is given considerable latitude even though his status is not as high as that of the industrial correspondent, for example. The prominent education writer is not expected to cover the trivial "head bans lipstick" type story, or the sensational item on "grammar school assigns Lady Chatterley's Lover for 6th form" -- still the most typical "school news" especially in the tabloid and evening press.
>
> The relative independence of the education correspondent works both ways. When he is left alone to write his stories regardless of party line, he is likely to be ignored about the editorial position the newspaper decides to take.

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The nature of organized relationships between newsmen and schoolmen in England has much in common with that in the United States, but the structure is different. The professional forces of organized education play a relatively militant and independent role at their highest and strongest level; where they are strongest: on the national level. They can effectively -- even if not always successfully -- interact with government and the press on that level, which is where the major resource decisions are made.

The role of government depends in part on economic conditions and in part on the party in power. Government, too, is expected to exercise a vigorous role in informing the public of the state of education.

The national press represents the industrial establishment and political groupings of the country. Its growing interest in schools reflects the postwar reforms, stresses, and increasingly acute political and economic stakes involved in educational issues. Studies of education coverage reported in the next chapter reveal the major newspapers' conceptions of these stakes from their own institutional vantage points, and their concern with national reform, as well as their preoccupation with "human interest" and the more lurid and provocative aspects of school life.

While these studies shed some light on the political and ideological components of education reporting, those aspects became the subjects of more intensive scrutiny in our investigations in France.

France

Our studies included three different probes into the pattern of relationships between education and the press in France. In the following section we report a series of interviews with key personnel at the Ministry of Education, unions of teachers and students, and selected organs of the national press. The next chapter presents a summary of a case study of the reporting of an event which indirectly involved education and revealed the differential tendencies of politically and ideologically differentiated groups of newspapers. Appendix II-E presents a more detailed account of that study, and also includes the results of a one-month audit of education news in Paris daily papers.

A brief sketch of the educational system, the press, newspapers used in the studies, and of events whose impact is deeply embedded in our studies, precedes the account of our observations and interviews.

The schools and the press

The Napoleonic Codes created a centralized public secondary and higher education system, but left primary schooling (to age 14) in the hands of the church. Throughout the 19th century, republicans continued to agitate for extending compulsory public schooling upward and outward into educational backwaters bypassed by the swift currents of secular and revolutionary sentiment. The struggle was bitter; its outcome (if, indeed, it is over) has been a source of cultural pride and of contention and strife for most Frenchmen ever since.

A national curriculum run by the Ministry of Education, manned by civil servants, revolves around national examinations of high academic and classical content. Competitive examinations keep eight out of every ten pupils out of secondary school. Few of those who pass the baccalaureat gain admission to a university. There they must prepare for further competitive state examinations mostly on their own; the few huge classrooms where professors read their lecture notes to hundreds of students accommodate only a fraction of the student body.

About one in every six children attends private schools. The predominantly Catholic private school system remained to contest secular republicanism in both the educational and financial realms. Petain's occupation law giving tax money to Catholic schools (and closing Normal Schools as "hotbeds of radicalism") was revoked upon liberation. But a conservative majority in a Parliament reapportioned under the Fifth Republic voted to support parochial schools from public funds.

Of the many popular images and figures of speech involving church, school, and politics perhaps none is more apt than a stock theme of the village comedy: The sanctimonious curé is in league with the wealthy châtelaine (or her husband) against the radical instituteur of the primary school, a popular figure of French history and culture. Between these antagonists stands the local mayor or newspaper editor, currying favor with one or another.

A more remote figure is that of the professeur of the high school or university. But, whatever his status, the French public educator is a civil servant and product of a national system. He is trained, certificated, paid, assigned, promoted, transferred, and finally pensioned by that system, under a Minister of Education answerable only to Parliament. Local communities may help provide the cost of buildings or furnish pupil transportation but they have no control over the teacher or his teaching. The structure and content of French education can only be affected through national pressure, legislation, and government action.

Monsieur l'Inspecteur is far from being regarded "a helpful senior colleague" or "at worst a nuisance," as in England. He comes once a year and sits in the classroom for at least an hour. His mark and observations determine the teacher's promotion.

The design of French public education is, then, clearly a centralized blueprint with both client and supervisory relationships leading to the seat of national power in Paris. It is in this context -- buffeted by centrifugal forces of clericalism and regionalism and torn by the tug-of-war of coalition governments -- that teacher and student organizations maintained their tradition of militant political activity dating back to the French revolution.

A case study reported in Appendix II-E and summarized in the next chapter deals with the political tendencies manifested in the press coverage of the crime and trial of an English teacher, Jean Amiel, in 1958. The interviews reported in this chapter took place four years later. These were years of national unrest and crisis preceding and following the collapse of the Fourth Republic. The nature of the times had a profound effect on both education and the press, and was inevitably reflected in our studies.

There was war and revolt in Algeria, fears of right wing dictatorship, the establishment of rebellious Committees of Public Safety, danger of civil war. A "legal coup d'etat" brought De Gaulle to power in May, 1958. Labor unions, Left parties, many other organizations rose up in protest. Teachers called a nationwide strike on May 30. They continued to demonstrate (and suffer government sanctions) throughout the period. Other teacher strikes revealed the depth of their economic distress.

A new constitution reduced the power of elected deputies and changed the basis of representation to the detriment of the Parliamentary Left. Cabinet posts traditionally held by Left parties, including that of Education, went to the new government majority.

The law allocating public funds to Church schools (without the right of public inspection) revived talk of "la guerre scolaire." Militant students, who had condoned desertions from the army and agitated for an end to the Algerian war, now joined with teachers to spark mass protests against the government's new law. A petition signed by nearly 11 million (about 50 percent of voters) opposed its implementation.

Each school year began with deeper crises and sharper conflicts. Reform measures were announced, and denounced as too little, too late, and too slow. By the end of 1963 striking students and teachers "clubbed, punched, and sprayed with fire hoses as they fought police in the streets of the Latin Quarter," closed the Sorbonne and all of France's 23 universities; "Never before," continued *Time* magazine's account, "has French higher education been in deeper trouble."* Education as a whole had become a center of national controversy and a subject of intense public interest and concern.

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The press emerged from wartime ruin and illegality with temporary financial support from the national government. Within ten years after the liberation, however, economic pressures cut the number of Paris dailies to half the postwar figure; the transition from a primarily party or "opinion" press to a primarily commercial or "information" press was well underway.

Today both types of papers exist side by side. Their position on the left vs. right-wing political spectrum and on the special readership vs. mass-audience-appeal commercial continuum largely determines their relationship to other institutions and their approach to the reporting of events.

The category of "prestige papers" usually includes the liberal independent *Le Monde*, analytical spokesman of the intelligentsia, and the conservative *Le Figaro*, representing the French *bourgeoisie*. Also influential is the rightist Catholic paper *La Croix*.

The largest and most successful commercial paper in France is *France Soir*, directed by Pierre Lazareff who worked for the New York *Daily Mirror* during World War II. Others are Le *Parisien Libéré*, *Paris-Presse*, *Paris-Journal*, the formerly Left *Combat*, and Le *Populaire*. A provincial daily paper used in the case study summarized in Chapter V is *L'Indépendant*, read by farmers and others in the southwest Mediterranean (Midi) region.

To the political right of *Figaro* is *L'Aurore*, the right wing "daily of the big businessman."** Each has a circulation of nearly half a million. Together with the two top commercial papers, the four account for nearly three-fourths of Paris daily circulation. A Right provincial paper used in the comparative case study of political tendencies is *Midi Libre*, a Toulouse daily circulating in the Midi region.

Chief organs of the Left press are *L'Humanité*, the official Communist daily, and *Libération*, a socialist paper. The Left provincial daily used in the case study summarized in Chapter V is Le *Provençal*, published in Marseilles.

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*[*Time*, December 6, 1963, p. 105.

**Cf. John C. Merrill, *A Handbook of the Foreign Press*, Baton Rouge, La.: Louisiana State University Press, 1959, p. 58.

The Ministry of Education

Traditionally, information functions of French Ministries have been handled by personal press secretaries attached to -- and changing with -- individual Ministers. In 1961, however, a permanent information office was established. A journalist formerly on the editorial staff of *Le Monde* heads a professional staff of about ten. Most members of the staff are former teachers, selected through civil service examinations following four years of practical training with pay. (The French Civil Service has no special category for information officer.)

Public information through the press and the government-owned broadcasting facilities, and assisting the Minister in his relations with the Deputies (up to one-fourth of whom have at times been teachers), are the main tasks of the office. "We must tell the public and the Deputies about the policies of the Ministry, answer criticism -- all of which is directed at the Minister in a centralized system such as ours -- and try to anticipate future problems and criticism," our informants explained.

> Nearly half million persons work under this Ministry. Their organization has traditionally been left-wing. Many of them are opposed to the Minister and his policies. This is an uncomfortable position.
>
> Relations with friendly organs of the press are personal and intimate; with others, well, they only distort what we say. But education is of great public and political interest. The newspapers print our stories. They often attack it and distort it but they usually give it good play. In more difficult or controversial matters we sometimes get a friendly Deputy to ask questions in Parliament, and have our material delivered by the Minister whose speeches are always reported by the political journalists.
>
> We are engaged in long-range educational reforms. This is not an easy task under the best of circumstances. Schooling is being extended, districts are being consolidated, more teachers are urgently needed. We must try to convince parents especially in rural and working class areas that their children should stay in school longer. We must inform municipalities of their responsibility for the transportation of children. We have difficulty recruiting new teachers. There are strikes and attacks on education which are in effect political attacks on the government. The opposition exaggerates the problems.
>
> Defending state aid to confessional /Catholic/ schools is one of our most troublesome tasks. Speeding up the school construction is another. The local communities must participate in this program and that slows down everything.

The union of teachers

The Fédération de l'Education Nationale (F.E.N.) is the major "umbrella" organization of unions of teachers. In addition to publishing its monthly organ, L'Enseigment Public, the F.E.N. maintains an active press bureau. The affiliated unions represent different levels of education and different groupings ranging from the radical left through syndicalisme a-politique to anarchist, and maintain their own press relations. The F.E.N. concentrates on major issues and coordinated campaigns which unite all or most of its affiliated groups.

> One example [we were told] was the broad campaign for preserving secular education in 1960, supported by many other organizations. That was when the newspapers became aware of our strength. When they saw that 25,000 people came in delegations from the provinces, a meeting at Vincennes gathered more than 300,000, the largest crowds across the country since the liberation, our bulletins were printed in all but perhaps the most reactionary papers.
>
> We are calling attention to the fact that schools are reopening each fall under more and more disastrous conditions. The Ministry publishes much reassuring information and uses the state-owned broadcasting system to radiate its optimism. But our material fares fairly well, too.
>
> Le Monde is probably the only paper which runs our news in a good position, indicating its origin, but without much editing or distortion. Most of the others help themselves according to their opinions. We have a big play in Humanité and Libération, especially when we oppose the government. Figaro will do the opposite. France Soir, and the rest of the "independent" press is yet another matter. These people do not worry much about the real and serious problems of education. What they want is personal incidents, accidents, the sensational story. If a child cracks his head on a school playground,* that's more important than all the problems of civil service, or the equalization of teacher salaries on the various levels. Also, since they discovered their readers' interest in education, they have taken upon themselves to act like teachers and advise parents about their children.

The union of students

The union of students, Union Nationale des Etudiants de France, (U.N.E.F.) is heir to a long tradition of militant social and political action. It represents four-fifths of the over 300,000 university students who, as Jacques Ehrmann wrote

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*The reference was to an accident which was also mentioned in other interviews (below) and took place during the time of the audit of the Paris press, tabulated in Appendix II-E-13, Table 3. At Jean Baptiste Say, a lycée for boys in Paris, a sixth-grader suffered a fatal accident during a recreation period. The ensuing "scandal" occupied most of the space devoted to education news in the three leading commercial papers (but not in the others) during the month.

in an article for American students, think of themselves "as a member of a distinct group, a separate segment of society."

> . . . To understand the French student and his peculiar problems, one must envisage the social framework and cultural heritage which plays such an important role in all his actions. Campus life is unknown to the French students. They are completely on their own, not only in their studies but also in meeting such practical problems as housing accommodations.

Ehrmann also described some of the activities and programs of the U.N.E.F.:

> . . . Through meetings and symposiums on specific issues, the student body is kept informed and students are allowed to express their views. The officers call press conferences, initiate petitions, call for student strikes, and organize mass demonstrations to call attention to specific problems while publicizing student's opinion. They also have conferences with the university deans on local issues and with the Minister of Education on broad national issues. The aims of the UNEF encompass the whole spectrum of student demands and activity. They deal with such social problems as improved housing and restaurants, reduction of transportation fares and student medical aid.*

The editorial office of the organization's newspaper, Etudiants de France, serves as the center of information activities. A small permanent staff writes and edits releases and bulletins for the information of Parliamentary Deputies and the press.

News releases usually contain statements or resolutions on specific current issues. "Actually," we were told, "every little vice president of every local student association affiliated with U.N.E.F. has a mania for releases. They pour them out all the time. We coordinate them and try to check the flow somewhat. We want to keep the value of U.N.E.F. news releases." (A "routine" news release we saw protested the expulsion of two African students as "gravely compromising the policy of cooperation with the newly independent African states.")

Another type of release, called "Press Bulletin," provides the factual background on a condition of concern and concludes with a brief statement of U.N.E.F. views. Bulletins are issued only four or five times a year, often to elaborate or criticize a policy announced by the Ministry. (One such bulletin, a five-page document, reviewed the financial and living conditions of students at the beginning of a new school year in light of a Ministry decree increasing the number of admissions. It noted the shortage of rentals, the absence of social or cultural facilities for students, and the lack of progress in relieving the situation. It concluded that "public improvidence makes students live in insecurity and degrading conditions, and at the mercy of those who traffic in lodgings.")

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*Jacques Ehrmann, "The Power of the French Student," The Moderator, Vol. 1, No. 1, 1962.

U.N.E.F. press relations with the national papers vary according to the "line" of each paper, the reporter in charge of education news, and the particular issue involved. Some thumbnail sketches from the students' point of view:

> L'Aurore: We have no personal relations. Rarely publishes anything we send them, but frequently attacks us and our policies. Regularly publishes the releases of right-wing student organizations created to oppose the U.N.E.F.
>
> Figaro: Publishes some of our releases when we have organizational news, and sometimes even about conditions of students. But in the realm of politics, if they publish our views at all, they do so under a headline or editorial note expressing their disapproval. However, we have friendly relations with the staff.
>
> La Croix: Contrary to Figaro, not a line of organizational activity but encouragement for certain policies such as struggle against the Algerian war. On such an issue we address ourselves directly to the editorial writer who has written some very conscientious pieces on our position.
>
> Paris-Presse: Never a line of what we send them, although much material denouncing us as "reds" and "traitors." At the time of the peace demonstrations the front page carried the banner headline: "UNEF SCANDAL." We're in the news only when there is something sensational, violent.
>
> France Soir: The education reporter is very friendly but the editor stops or rewrites everything we send. So you have to use devious means. For example, when the U.N.E.F. took a stand on the Algerian war, we went directly to the man in charge of Algerian affairs who could get it through. Another time we had an economic conference but couldn't get our story published until we included the names of prominent industrialists who attended the meeting.
>
> Le Monde: Up in the clouds. Rarely uses our releases unless some government scandal is brewing. Writing theoretical pieces is more important for them than keeping up with day-to-day events.
>
> L'Humanité, Libération: Jump at anything that is against the government. Libération especially is inclined to be even more sensational than some commercial papers.

National newspapers -- from Left to Right

After the liberation three of the some thirty daily papers in Paris had regular education sections (Le Monde, Combat, and Figaro). Fourteen years later most of the remaining fifteen papers had either a section or an editor specializing in education news. Some education writers and editors were top journalists with established reputations; the average tenure in such a post was about six years.

At the beginning of the education reform programs in the mid-fifties, the government stimulated the formation of an association of education journalists. But the association folded after a year of turbulent existence. Its president, who had been an information officer at the Ministry, lost his post in the next cabinet shuffle and became the education correspondent of the government news agency, Agence France Press. In that position he also writes occasional feature articles on education for the Paris and the provincial press, produces radio and television programs on education over the government broadcasting system, and keeps in close touch with both organizations and other journalists concerned with education.

Paris papers use AFP's domestic service more for their information than as a substitute to their own coverage. Each paper's political tendency, extent of commercial orientation, and the education writer's prominence and autonomy compose the overall perspective reflected in the coverage. A case study inquiring into these perspectives is reported in Appendix II-E and summarized in the next chapter. Here we shall present the views of education writers in their own words, representing a range of institutional and personal orientations.

*

An education editor and his assistant handle school news on a major Left wing paper. An education section was established after the "anti-clericalization" campaign of 1959. "Think of it," we were told, "11 million signatures in France -- this had not happened for a long time. The public is very much moved by questions of education, of democratization. The whole structure of secular education, the principle of French education, is at stake."

Aside from the continued anti-clerical campaign, school news policy gives primary emphasis to the conditions of teachers and students and to general problems of workers' and popular education.

> We maintain close relations with teacher and student unions, and many individuals in education. Attend all Congresses of instituteurs, and give detailed coverage of their activities. Of course, for us the political problems come first; we are former teachers ourselves, but we feel that the solution of pedagogic problems depends on the prior solution of the political problems.
>
> The position of teachers in France has deteriorated. The recent strikes have demonstrated that the situation is desperate. The role of the teachers colleges has been reduced, and teachers are hired with a simple bachelor's degree, and without any preparation for teaching, because salaries are so low, especially starting salaries.
>
> The rate of population growth is the highest in Europe. The pressures are increasing. In the first year of secondary education only 13 percent of the students are working class children. And the proportion among university students is 3 percent! These are the problems we are stressing, and expect

> to do so in the future. Every time there is protest, any positive action, any new scandal -- shortage of teachers, lack of buildings -- we give it full coverage.

*

The education writer on an independent Left-center daily is also responsible for public health news. "On our newspaper every writer has equal status," she pointed out, "and we have considerable freedom to develop and write on subjects that interest us. Our stories may be cut, but they are not revised by the editor. We have regular contacts with the teachers unions and the U.N.E.F., and often carry their releases without comment."

> Every week we run two or three articles on academic life, problems of teaching and so on, We list news of competitive examinations, government measures, bulletins from various organizations. Teachers and professors write regular articles for us, and often suggest features or surveys. Sometimes we assign these to outside experts, sometimes we write them ourselves. For example, I recently wrote a survey on school television after printing an article on film in education written by a teacher.
>
> Mail from readers is enormous. Among our readers there are many teachers and they write very much. We try to answer every letter. We rarely print letters to the editor, but prefer to write articles summarizing and citing several correspondents.

However, the education writer hastened to remark, "nothing is sacred, nothing is taboo, not even the academicians -- regardless of what they think. The professors of the high schools, especially, take themselves very seriously. The _instituteurs_ of the primary schools are much less rigid."

*

The education writer of an independent "prestige" paper expressed these views:

> Many organizations turn out news on education. We try to include these in proportion of our estimate of the strength of the organization. However, teachers are very touchy people. I try to humor them by occasionally picking out some releases on the basis of its content rather than the strength of the organization sending it. Still, as soon as somebody is displeased, he tries to go over my head and writes to the editor-in-chief -- only to find his letter sent right back to me.
>
> From this you can see that I am given relatively free reign. I had a real battle with the Minister of Education last year. Still, it seems that I spend most of my time rewriting news releases. I don't use wire copy; news sources know me well and send me their dispatches by special delivery. We eliminate all commercial-type releases and announcements

> about new courses, etc., with which we are constantly flooded. Less than 10 percent of what I actually write is discarded, usually for reasons of space.
>
> We receive more mail than any other department except the editor-in-chief, and I answer all of it. Strictly speaking there are no editorials on school problems; however, I write brief signed commentaries printed above some news stories. I am free to write these when and how I please.

*

The "social editor" in charge of education, health, and labor on a mass circulation commercial daily had a different story to tell.

> The trouble is [he said] that I am completely under the thumb of editors. I sign very few of my articles because they are usually rewritten before they appear. This little "procedure" as we call it is usually calculated to make the news more spicy, more interesting. When we had that fatal accident of the boy at the Jean Baptiste Say school for example, it was felt that the news would be more interesting if it hinted at a scandal in the enforcement of safety regulations. The teacher strike was to be reported without commentary but with a maximum of colorful personal detail. Same for the controversy on religious instruction. We try to separate the political from the educational news; the political news concerning teaching goes on the political page in a manner as concise as possible.
>
> As to news sources, the Ministries are now full of civil servants rather than political people. Consequently they are too aloof, too bureaucratic. The unions are much more open, except on the extreme left which is closed to a journalist from my paper. However, I try to work with them behind the scenes. My contacts with the F.E.N. are the most frequent. The U.N.E.F. sends me reports which are 5 centimeters thick and take hours to read; I am also a professor of journalism and write for an economic weekly, have three hours of lecture per day, work a total of 14 hours a day -- so you see I don't have time to read those long reports. Besides, we have a great deal of friction about the students. The rest of the staff does not recognize their right to political opinions.
>
> You can probably tell that my opinions differ in certain respects from the editors'. We don't discuss matters much and I never write editorials. The departmental manager gets the wire stories and releases and hands me those he is interested in. Even so much of what I write is re-hashed by non-specialists, and about half of that never appears.
>
> I was really cut out to be a labor editor. To me the unions speak a human language. The problem is very simple: Teachers earn less than typists; there is one room for every

ten university students; children need a "common trunk" high school -- who can decide on a career at age 14? We need more professors and they need to know more about life. These are my personal opinions. I am not interested in theory but I am interested in the human side of reform. But the rest of the staff and my editors want other things, so I leave these problems for the political and parliamentary journalists to write about.

A year ago I started a weekly education page but it was discontinued. Actually it was a commercial proposition in that course announcements and other educational advertising paid for the page. The page carried features about school and university life, a section on training for occupations, and a column of meeting and other notices. At the end of the school year the page was dropped without a word. Later I was told that it clashed with the rest of the paper, it was not gay and amusing enough.

Despite all this, education news gets a considerable amount of space compared to some other subjects. There is a great deal of reader interest in schools and education.

*

Another commercially successful mass circulation daily has a full-fledged education department with an editor and an assistant. The department was established in 1954 by the present education editor. "I hope to have two assistants before long," she said.

All news concerning schools and education is channeled through the education editor. "Of course many of these stories end up with the political or labor editor, or in the wastebasket. Especially bulletins from the Ministry of Education, releases from teachers unions -- dull stories for us. Our world is governed by the competition for attention. News must be living, personal, vivid actuality served in an appetizing way to hook a tired, lazy public!"

> Our public is so varied [she continued] that I have no image of it. We are not like papers written for the working man or the business man, or intellectuals -- we must appeal to all, from the professor to the streetsweeper or subway ticket puncher. So I must write for the subway ticket puncher; if I can interest him, I can interest the professor too.
>
> Nowadays we must compete with television. We must appeal to TV's audiences, explain things to them. Democratization in education means that many people will go to school who do not understand what it is all about. The parents of many new high school students don't know the difference between "le classique" and "le moderne." So I write a brief and clear article with amusing drawings: "le classique" means Latin, "le moderne" -- no Latin. I get many letters thanking me for information and asking for more. They reflect the anxiety of parents and their confusion with the new reforms.

I must find attractive and useful subjects and never be content only processing releases. If I receive something about the housing problems of students, I must also slip in something about the latest fad in college girl hairdo. News must be humanized, personalized: first names, pictures, individual cases.

We also have a permanent contest on the staff for punchy or humorous headlines and captions. I won it last June with a title concerning a problem about refrigerators on an exam for the Certificat d'Etudes Primaires. The title was REFRIGERATOR MAKES CANDIDATE PERSPIRE. You get the idea!

The work itself is quite thankless. We receive dozens of releases, and find some place or use for most of them because we publish six editions a day -- two for the provinces, three for Paris. I send all my copy to the chief editor's office where it is cut, often rewritten or discarded. But the fact that an education department exists at all is some satisfaction for me. Not too many years ago a high school principal or a rector at the university I would try to interview would think I was crazy to start an education department on a paper like ours. These people still have little understanding of public relations, but now they receive me without smiling.

Relations with academics and their organizations are getting better. Especially with the instituteurs. You can see them any day after class. But the professors -- they can't get used to the fact that in today's world they are not the only source of knowledge. You can't see them; they are turned inward, imbued with their science. You have to write, make appointments, wait for them. They don't know how to take advantage of this great public interest in education. Their unions are rigid; their leaders are the politicians of 50 years ago.

The furor about parochial schools does not mean much to us. It's very simple: out of ten million pupils in France, only 1.7 million are in parochial schools. I write for the ten million.

Children have become fashionable. People turn to children and youth to replace their faith in religion and politics. Life is hard, weary, they say; our children must have better success and they must know more. Contrary to what many teachers say, parents do not feel that their children are overworked at school. Education is the new cult.

*

A conservative newspaper once called "the morning bible of France's upper middle class" prides itself on being "the best informed on matters concerning education." The education editor is also deputy editor-in-chief. Two full-time assistants help screen and follow up the day's education news, and maintain contact with organizations in the field.

Our doors are open to teachers and students /we were told/, and we do not sacrifice education to sensationalism or commerciality. For example, we did not blow up the Jean Baptiste Say incident or the Jeanson case.* Politically we are right of center, but this did not prevent us from supporting students who asked for draft deferment to complete their studies, or to express sympathy for teacher strikes. At the same time, we don't confuse democratization with demagogy. We struggle to maintain high standards and oppose those who encourage youth to desert the Army.

We realize that students are restless and teachers dissatisfied. Reform is needed and scientific education must be extended. We do not hold with the old generation of professors who defend to the death the teaching of Latin and Greek, or with those who fight for the "freedom" of Catholic schools to receive public funds without public inspection. We interpret the new law as an attempt to eliminate bad schools and to support good private and parochial schools as part of the national system.

We address ourselves more and more to a young generation of students and former students. We do not believe that students are overworked nowadays; we do not give in to opportunism, but we make a point of supporting the demands of students whenever possible. In our opinion the crisis of the universities and their lack of adjustment to the needs of the country are the leading problems in education today.

-- * --

With the client relationships of the educational system centered in the national government and those of the press clearly differentiated along two dimensions -- the political and the commercial -- a complex pattern of interaction is characteristic of the structure of school-press relationships in France. The content study summarized in Chapter V illuminates the effects of differential political and ideological perspectives upon the treatment of news within the French press system.

Next we turn to the Soviet Union where, as in the United States, a single overall perspective rather than sharp ideological differentiation is characteristic of both education and the press. However, unlike in the United State, the perspective is overtly political. Unlike in any of the countries discussed so far, all institutional relationships center in the same public organizations, and many institutional functions are in the process of planned change.

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*The "Jeanson case," as the Jean Baptiste Say incident (see footnote on page 20), was a much-publicized scandale. Some boys of the lycée Jeanson de Sailly were suspected to be part of a secret network of Algerian National Liberation Front sympathizers and were arrested for "transporting secret documents."

Soviet Union

Soviet schools and press are both regarded as educational instruments and agencies of planned change. At the same time, both school and press are involved in an institutional transformation which has sharpened and extended some of their functions and decisively altered others.

Our interviews with editors of major Soviet newspapers, and the results of the comparative content analysis reported in the next chapter, need to be considered against the background of these changes as well as of the organizational structures, processes, and relationships long characteristic of Soviet institutions.

The sketch of some salient aspects of this background, which follows, is based on discussions with Soviet officials, and on other Soviet and Western sources.* As in the other summaries, the intention was to present the context in which the Soviets themselves view their institutional relationships.

Interviews with newsmen responsible for representations of Soviet education in the official organs of the central government, the Young Communist League, and the Young Pioneers organization follow the brief discussion of the structure of client and supervisory relationships in the schools, the press, and other organization with major responsibilities for education, and of the nature of current reforms.

The schools

Comprehensive planning, public management, and directed change are dominant features of Soviet institutional life. Client relationships center in major public organizations. Resource-allocation functions are performed by government planning committees, regional economic councils, and the State Planning Commission (Gosplan). These organizations collect recommendations from all enterprises, reconcile local and national needs and special interests, allocate monies and set goals in accordance with priorities embodied in Party programs and approved by the Supreme Soviet.

Supervisory relationships follow lines of authority and decision-making resting on principles of "collective leadership" and "democratic centralism." The centers of authority are the public organizations led by executive bodies whose members are appointed or elected and periodically rotated. "Democratic centralism" claims to combine administration with participation in policy-making; those supervised by a higher authority presumably have a voice in formulating its policies. Major policy-making usually begins with a widely publicized draft resolution or program, proceeds with discussion and recommendations passing up the line, and concludes with formal adoption on the highest level. Such decisions become binding on lower echelons.

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*Aside from the sources cited, the following publications were consulted: Education in the USSR. Bulletin 1957, No. 14, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, 1957; George Z. F. Bereday, William W. Brickman and Gerald H. Read, The Changing Soviet School. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1960; Herbert C. Rudman, Structure and Decision-Making in Soviet Education. Bulletin 1964, No. 2, U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education, 1964; and The Press in Authoritarian Countries. Zurich: The International Press Institute, 1959.

Public schooling is the primary responsibility of government ministries and local Soviets. But all major mass organizations, including the Communist Party, have specialized branches working with the public schools and conducting educational programs of their own. The Young Pioneers and the Young Communist League (Komsomol) are largely educational organizations well integrated with and nearly equal to the public schools in scope and significance. The cultural and educational activities of the unions form another adult education system reaching all working people and their families. The organs of the government, the Party, and other mass organizations (which make up the press of the country) further promote educational objectives and planning. Interlocking responsibilities and joint planning thus relate all major organizations to each other and to the public schools.

Pre-school, primary and general secondary education is under the overall direction of the 15 Republic Ministries of Education. Republic government consists of a series of interlocking Soviets (councils) on every geopolitical level. Each regional, city, or district Soviet is composed of members elected from trade, educational, agricultural, and industrial enterprises. Its departments are responsible for public services such as utilities, planning, and schools. The head of its Department of Public Education is usually an educator with administrative experience elected to the Soviet for a 2-year term. Under him serve vice-managers responsible for special sections such as pre-school establishments, plant planning, finance, administrative services, curriculum, personnel, institute for advanced teacher education, and inspection.

The school building is in charge of a director assisted by a master for polytechnical education, assistant directors for different grade levels and for maintainance, and a Pioneer leader. The director is also chairman pro tem of the school pedagogical council which unites instructional personnel and representatives of parents' and students' committees (each of which, in turn, have specialized educational, disciplinary, maintainance and other subcommittees) as the chief instrument for the consideration of educational problems. Scholastic and discipline problems are handled through class committees, Pioneers, or, if necessary, the parents' subcommittee. This group can contact parents and, in serious cases inform the Party unit or educational committee at the parents' place of employment.

Inspectors attached to the Republic Ministries and the Departments supervise physical, administrative and educational standards. Teacher evaluation and promotion is the responsibility of the director and the teachers' union.

Planning goes on on all levels. Budget requests are submitted to the Republic Ministries which also administer the technical and teaching-aid industries, publishing houses, and research institutes in the pedagogical sciences. The refined budgets are then presented to the Chamber of Union Nationalities (the "Senate") of the Supreme Soviet for nationwide coordination and equalization.

Higher and specialized secondary education is under the supervision of a central Union-Republic Ministry which has counterparts in the individual Republics. Through an annual review of budgets, the U.S.S.R. Ministry can detect inconsistencies and challenge them before the Council of Ministers.

The Communist Party elects a bureau at every level which, in turn, has a special Department of Schools, Higher Education, and Science. The task of these Departments is to see that the decisions of Party Congresses are implemented and to carry on their own cultural and educational programs. Primary Party units operating at places of residence and employment are also charged with exercising vigilance and assisting city and district Soviets and Departments of Education in their functions.

Trade unions are similarly engaged in cultural, educational and publishing activities, some of which relate directly to the public schools. The Teachers' Union also participates in the planning of salary scales and work loads, in the drafting of legislation relating to the profession, and in discipline and dismissal cases. It has specialized committees concerned with teaching techniques, housing, welfare, social insurance, vacation camps, teachers' Houses of Culture, and a large variety of other activities.

Reform

The current transformation of Soviet institutional life took shape in the mid-fifties. The Twentieth Congress of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union, meeting in 1956, released a wave of legislative reform and intellectual and moral ferment. In response to new circumstances (and to some realities of the old ones), the press was given the task of "unleashing the initiative from below" (as well as from within its own ranks), and the schools of "strengthening the ties between education and life." The school reform law of 1958 expanded education on all levels, and made polytechnical training and work experience a part of all learning and a prerequisite for most aspirants for higher education.

The Third Program of the CPSU adapted at the Party's Twenty-second Congress in 1961 gave a further boost to these reforms. The Third Program declared socialism in the U.S.S.R. a reality and defined the main tasks of communist construction toward the supreme goal of "From each according to his ability, to each according to his needs" -- in 20 years. Among these tasks were "the shaping of a scientific world outlook," "the affirmation of communist morality," and "the elimination of substantial distinctions between mental and physical labor." Responsibilities assigned the mass media and the schools were indicated in the following passages:

> The molding of the new man is effected through his own active participation in communist construction and the development of communist principles . . . under the influence of the educational work carried out by the Party, the state, and various social organizations, work in which the press, radio, cinema, and television play an important part.

And:

> The importance of the school, which is to cultivate love of labor and knowledge in children and to raise the younger generation in the spirit of communist consciousness and morality, will increase. An honorable and responsible role in this respect falls to teachers, and to the Komsomol and Young Pioneer organizations.*

The themes of individual initiative, incentive,** and joint press-school responsibilities in planning and carrying out these common tasks ran through our interviews. A high trade union official summarized the official view when she told us:

> The cultural revolution is a more difficult task than the political and even economic revolutions. Those revolutions create the material requirements, but the cultural revolution is the conscious internalization of a new morality which makes the new society a subjective reality for the masses of people. The leadership of the Party and the joint efforts of all organizations are required to accomplish that task.

The task is far from accomplished. In fact, just as the wave of reforms began to roll, it appeared that the educational effort would suffer a setback. Rapid developments in the secondary schooling combined with a shrinking labor force due to the staggering losses and the "baby slump" of the war years led to severe dislocations in the mid-fifties. Many hundreds of thousands of new secondary school graduates were clamoring at the university gates while factories and farms were begging for workers. The debate over the school reform draft proposal revealed something about this dilemma, as well as about the "new era" in public life and the "new look" in the press. As a leading Western scholar on Soviet affairs described it:

> Khrushchev had intended to curtail secondary education quite drastically, to lower the school leaving age, to channel pupils into several "streams" . . . so as to reduce at the source, at the secondary school, the number of candidates for academic training. However, many of these proposals provoked widespread if cautiously worded protests from parents and teachers alike -- even children protested; and so Khrushchev thought it wise to modify his original draft and to propose a compromise. This was accepted on the understanding that it was provisional; and the government had to commit

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*Program of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union. New York: Crosscurrents Press, 1961, pp. 119 and 126.

**The use of these terms by the Soviets means no concession to individualism. It means broader involvement, discussion, and participation in decision-making, but under the rules of "democratic centralism" based on strict subordination of lower echelons to the higher in all organizations.

> itself at once to further expansion of the universities and it increased the budgetary grants for all grades of schools.*

Instead of curtailment, educational development was accelerated and secondary schooling extended. Figures on the rate of expenditures for Soviet education compiled for the Joint Economic Committee of the U.S. Congress show that while the total state budget of the U.S.S.R. increased 35 percent between 1955 and 1963, educational-cultural expenditures nearly doubled, and their share of the total increased from 13 to 15 percent.**

Instead of simply funneling manpower into production, the educational reforms posed vast new pedagogical and organizational problems. Polytechnical training and work experience were to be integrated with secondary and higher education. After ten or eleven years of schooling (instead of the previous eight) statewide comprehensive examinations in each major subject were designed to test the students' "ability to relate knowledge to life -- theory to practice."*** Free education was made more easily available for all workers by expanding correspondence and evening schools, and by paying workers for time lost due to preparation and examinations. Holders of advanced graduate degrees were to receive a lifetime stipend regardless of employment or salary.

The education departments of the revitalized Soviet press were, as we shall see, called upon to assist in the educational effort. "Numerous stories in Soviet newspapers continued to point out that enrollment in the intermediate and upper grades in rural schools lagged behind target quotas, that many who registered did not attend, and that schools were not accessible."**** Aside from exposing lags and gaps, newspaper editors became general trouble-shooters investigating complaints, exchanging experiences, debating pros and cons of different ways of solving unprecedented problems. The Western observer of the Soviet educational scene cited above exclaimed:

> The debate and the reform have reflected the peculiar dilemmas and difficulties with which Soviet education has to contend. . . . The essence of the problem lies in the fact that the extraordinary expansion of Soviet education has in some respects outrun the nation's economic resources. To us

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*Isaac Deutscher, The Great Contest. New York: Ballantine Books, 1960, pp. 46-47. For a detailed account see Nicholas de Witt, Education and Professional Employment in the U.S.S.R., Washington, D.C.: National Science Foundation, 1961, pp. 9-21

**U.S. Government Printing Office, Annual Economic Indicators for the USSR. 1964, p. 75.

***"Final Examinations in the Russian Ten-Year School," Information on Education Around the World, U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education, International Educational Relations Bulletin No. 6, October 1958, p. 1.

****De Witt, op. cit., p. 142.

> this may seem a paradoxical development, because here, in the West, we see the opposite phenomenon. . . . And yet this is the fact: the Russians have expanded their schools almost beyond their means. What an enviable mistake.*

Economic planners, whose responsibilities for resource allocation places them in a client relationship with the schools, refused to admit any "mistake." The deputy chairman of the State Planning Commission and dean of Soviet economists made the following claim in 1962:

> Although the fixed capital in education, social science and art increased from 1940 to 1960 even faster than in the sphere of material production, and current outlays on education more than trebled, in constant prices, the increase in the national income resulting from secondary and higher education was more than six-fold, while the net profit, after deduction of the current outlays, went up ten-fold. As a result, the economic profitability of the investment in this area of cultural development exceeded, on the average for the whole country, all other indeces known to us, growing from 52 to 144% a year.**

The press

The slogan of "strengthening the ties between education and life" appeared to be as applicable to the revamping of the press as to the school reform. As in education, the changes in the press were intended to revitalize certain features deeply rooted in Soviet institutional life and to decisively alter some others.

One constant characteristic of the Soviet press is that it is almost wholly composed of official organs of mass organizations, including the government, designed primarily to represent the views and interests of these organizations and to convey news relevant to their functions. "Organ" is a literal expression of the Soviet concept of the press as the arm of revolutionary organization, and itself, in Lenin's words, a "collective organizer." The principle was implemented in the Soviet Constitution which placed printing presses, newsprint, and other publishing facilities "at the disposal of the working people and their organizations."

The principal clients of Soviet newspapers are, therefore, the mass organizations whose news, views, and interests the press is to express, and whose educational and organizational work it is to further. Editors of major newspapers sit on the highest councils of their organizations and participate in policy-making. Editorial boards exercise initiative and interpret events within the limits of basic organizational policy.

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*Deutscher, loc. cit.

**S. Strumilin, "The Effectiveness of Education in the USSR," Ekonomicheskaya Gazeta, April 2, 1962. However, the 11-year compulsory education plan was, in fact, changed to 10 years in 1964.

The changes had less to do with organizational structure than with the interpretation of functions. "Unleashing the initiative from below" became the public formula for combating the dangers of unthinking imitation and insulation inherent in a tightly-knit and aggressively led institutional complex.

The inbred uniformity of the press came under increasing criticism in the fifties. In January, 1956, year of the Twentieth Congress, the theoretical Party organ Kommunist declared that "The cliches and stereotyped patterns ever recurring in the press have a dulling effect on readers and thus increase their isolation from real life. . . . Local papers are in the habit of passing over in silence all new problems until the papers of the capital have pronounced on them." A Union of Journalists was organized and set to work on "strengthening the links between the press and the mass of the workers." Its new organ, Sovietskaya Petchat, asked in June, 1956 whether journalists served their readers or only wrote for the benefit of authorities. "Just pick up a paper and see for yourself!" it admonished. "The Soviet people see that life around them is fuller, more interesting and more complex than appears in the papers."

The youth papers, especially the central organ of the Young Communist League, Komsomolskaya Pravda, pioneered in revitalizing the appearance as well as the content of newspapers, striking a critical and controversial tone in matters never before aired in public, and opening up one-third or more of its total space to comments, complaints, and contributions from readers. Its successful editor, Khrushchev's son-in-law Aleksei Adzhubei, next performed similar face-lifting on the staid government organ Izvestia. A few "Western style" dailies such as Sovietskaya Rossiya and Vechernaya Moskva, replete with news, cartoons, human interest stories and even advertisements began to compete for readers, and their popularity further hastened the general ferment.

The transformation appears to have amplified the role of the press in institutional change in general and in the educational process in particular. Reflected in our interviews and in the content characteristics found in the comparative study summarized in the next chapter is the attempt of at least some Soviet editors to (1) broaden the scope of critical discussion; (2) maintain a public forum where consideration of the individual problem, special circumstance, unforeseen exigency, and secular judgment can inform the bold sweep of reform; and, at the same time (3) restore the credibility and enhance the organizing effectiveness and mobilizing capability of the press.

As all mass organizations overlap in their educational concern and interest in the public schools, all major newspapers have clearly recognized educational functions as well as special departments for education and the schools. We interviewed general editors and education specialists of three mass circulation papers which are among the most active in this field. In the following we report their conceptions of these functions and their account of the role and tasks of education specialists on the government paper Izvestia, the leading youth daily Komsomolskaya Pravda, and the central organ of the Young Pioneers, Pionerskaya Pravda.

Education coverage and functions on three newspapers

Izvestia is the organ of the government. The Supreme Soviet confirms its editors and approves its general plans. It is edited in Moscow and printed in a circulation of 4½ million in 23 cities where mats are flown and local pages may be inserted. As the Party paper Pravda is the chief outlet for party organizational news and statements, Izvestia is the main vehicle of governmental (election, legislative, and foreign) news.

The largest department is that of letters. It employs a staff of over 40, which is nearly half the entire headquarters staff. The foreign department, including overseas correspondents, is second in size. Other departments are Soviet administration (national and state), national economy, science, literature and the arts, spot news, relations with socialist countries, features, and education.

An editor of Izvestia described the major current concerns of the staff in these words:

> We consider the press the principal medium for public airing of views, exchange of information and experiences, and organizational work, aside from providing general information necessary for our tasks. In order to accomplish these functions, we attempt to make our newspapers serve as a forum for the discussion and adjustment of many individual and social problems. That is why the Central Committee of the CPSU has given all periodical organs the obligation and responsibility of being most attentive to letters and contributions from readers.
>
> Theoretically we have always had such a policy. We have always printed excerpts from letters, investigated complaints, responded to requests for information or obtained replies from other responsible persons or authorities. But since Mr. Adzhubei became editor, we have made this policy a focal point of our efforts in every department. We have evolved new techniques to expand the scope of our contacts with readers.
>
> We have many regular reader-correspondents. An average of one-third of total space is devoted to letters and articles stimulated by letters. We reply to every letter and spend much of our time "trouble shooting" even if nothing appears about it in the paper. We air all kinds of problems and controversies except those dealing with foreign affairs and security matters. Such matters are not debated in the press; when we receive inquiries about them we print or refer the reader to statements of responsible Soviet or foreign authorities.
>
> We receive an average of 1,000 to 1,500 letters a day from all parts of the USSR. These are registered and tabulated in the letters department, and answered from there or sent to other departments or to appropriate authorities for their action or comment.

The education department of Izvestia -- as those of most other major newspapers -- is composed of two sections. The division between the schools section and the higher education and institutes section parallels the separation of Republic Ministries of Education (for primary and secondary schools) and the USSR Ministry of Higher and Specialized Secondary Education. Our interviews were with editors of the schools section, but the discussion ranged over education and the department as a whole.

An editor, deputy editor, and special correspondent staff the Moscow headquarters of the schools section. All had been trained as teachers and as journalists; they consider themselves primarily educators -- in both capacities.

All material pertaining to education is channeled through the department. There is no regular amount of space allocated to education news. "The space we get," said one of the school editors, "depends on the quality of our articles, the general situation in regards to important domestic events, and the significance of the problems discussed in the articles. At a time of great national debate such as before the school reform law, we have much more space than at other times. But in addition to stories during the week, we prepare regular features for the weekly supplement. These include fiction stories, foreign language lessons, articles on hobbies, games, etc."

At least one member of the headquarters staff is usually "on the road." The staff writes probably less than half of all education news and articles. A network of reader-correspondents, including prominent persons and specialists in various fields as well as teachers and lay readers, and the constant stream of letters to the editor are the major sources of copy. (For a tabulation of sources see Appendix II-C-6 and 7, Table 4.)

> The number of letters we get /the editor said7 depends largely on what we publish. Most letters reflect in one way or another what appears in the paper. If the problem is a general or provocative one, many people contribute their views, ideas, experiences. We feel that the number and quality of letters and contributions we stimulate is a measure of our success as writers, journalists, and educators.
>
> We can help our readers in many ways because Izvestia is a large and respected newspaper. When I call the Minister of Education concerning a problem we consider important, he listens carefully because he knows that what we write affects him and his work. Besides the education editors of the major newspapers are in certain respects the most experienced educators in the country. We travel a great deal and see conditions in all parts of the U.S.S.R. and in many other countries. Our opinion on educational problems is often requested and usually respected.

We asked the editor whether her opinion always coincides with the official view or the position of the Ministry. She laughed, and replied:

> Of course not, not always. We have our battles. But we usually agree with the position of the Ministry and of the Party because official positions are developed after a great deal of discussion. Sometimes, however, this is not the case. Of course we are an organ of the government and are obliged to print official statements and letters from the Ministers. But we are not obliged to agree with them. If we feel strongly enough that we are right, we pursue the matter. In the end we usually win out because what we write is based on very close relationships with the people, our readers.

The education editors also work closely with organizations in education. They participate in planning important meetings and campaigns. This makes it possible to stimulate national interest and prepare the ground in advance for major legislative or professional events, and to follow up such events with sustained coverage and continuing public discussion.

Such an event took place shortly before our visit. It was a Conference of Workers of Colleges, Universities, and Higher Education Institutes held in Moscow and attended by delegations of prominent professors, deans, and rectors across the country. Long before the conference began, we were told, the education editors planned to direct public attention to problems in higher education as part of national preparation for the meeting. They published several letters, one of which evoked such public response that the resulting campaign was still continuing. This, in the words of the editor, is how it happened.

> One day we received a letter from a professor of education. It was quite unsolicited, but came at a time when we were considering the problems it raised. That letter argued that our system of examinations was outmoded. It was more a test of luck and endurance than of knowledge, the writer argued. He suggested a more flexible system. Why couldn't students take examinations any time they feel they are ready? We published the letter, and received a large mail response from scientists, professors, students, and parents, mostly in agreement. We followed up by publishing a letter from a student entitled "To Take Exams -- Does it Mean to Know?" -- and our mail again multiplied. We published extracts from the replies and two long articles analyzing the situation and calling it to the attention of the forthcoming conference and of the Minister of Higher Education.
>
> The Conference discussed many problems and made many recommendations but the problem of examinations was not resolved. We called on the Minister and again emphasized that we considered the problem of examinations an important public issue. He agreed it was a serious problem. He said that it must be considered thoroughly and discussed on every level before a decision is made. We said we appreciated that and we shall expect action in due time. But there has been no action. We are now about to publish an article entitled "Two Questions to Two Ministers" (for we have separate ministers for schools and for higher education), reminding them that we have not forgotten and will not forget until the questions and problems of our readers are satisfied.

The school department editors consider the supply, training, and conditions of teachers one of their most important continuing concerns. On the whole, teacher-student ratios compare favorably to the United States,* but the extension of schooling and introduction of polytechnical education imposed severe demands on teacher training. In 1962 the Council of Ministers called for major improvements. Izvestia took it upon itself to publicize some problems and inhibiting conditions.

Teachers' living accommodations in rural, remote, and primitive areas had been one subject of critical attention. Cited as typical was a letter from the principal of a school attached to a collective farm in Siberia. He wrote:

> I have a very good teaching staff, but the collective has been slow in building houses they have promised. This year three of our new teachers did not get their apartments and had to rent rooms on their own. I am afraid we will lose them because they can easily find other places with better housing. Can you help us?

Such a letter would first be registered for future reference and follow-up, and sent to the regional correspondent for checking. After that it might be referred to the Republic Ministry of Education, the District Party Committee, or the local Soviet, requesting an investigation and a reply.

Another area of concern has been the system of teacher evaluation and promotion. A letter from a teacher published in Izvestia had pointed out the weakness of evaluating teachers by the percentage of student failures on examinations. The writer asked that the teacher's entire work be taken into consideration. More than 300 teachers responded within two months of the publication of the initial letter. Opinions were divided, with the majority critical of the present system.

Criticism can get a person into trouble, we were told. "But," the editors said, "if our investigation finds a complaint justified, we appeal to higher authorities for protection, or expose any vindictiveness ourselves. We defend our correspondents. Besides," they said, "it is almost impossible to fire a teacher; he has tenure, and can always appeal to the union or the courts. This in itself can become a problem; not long ago we published an article on abusing "The Right to Teach Children."

Polytechnic education, school construction, and the problems of extension programs and working students have been other areas of attention in the school department of Izvestia.

> I am sorry to say [said an education editor] that despite the years of experience we have had now with polytechnic education, the quality and organization is still very uneven. We are just now preparing a number of critical articles on that subject.

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*De Witt, op. cit., p. 152.

We feel that the Pedagogical Institutes have fallen behind and have been too far removed from the everyday practical problems of polytechnic education. Still not every factory has a special shop for students. And not all shops are well organized to give a rewarding educational experience to students.

Last spring I visited the schools of Georgia, writing about well-organized "pupil shops" where experienced master workers -- who are also good teachers -- were given special assignments to run the polytechnic program.

Of course this is not easy to achieve. There are complaints of interference with production. Every manager wants to reach his goals, every worker wants to fulfill his quota and qualify for premiums if he can. That is why special shops need to be organized, and the best workers put in charge, for extra pay. But provisions have to be made for taking these workers out of production, for making them cooperate with the school-teacher who accompanies the students, for making them understand that the students are there to learn and not just to help the plants achieve their goals.

Various other aspects of the new education laws created problems which were reflected on the pages of Izvestia. Only top students could enter universities directly from high school. The majority were accepted only after working a period of time in a factory or on a farm. But once in, they all faced the same competition. Shouldn't worker-students receive more pay, more attention, more time to catch up? asked some letter writers.

The increasing number of working students was forcing the expanded "evening schools" to become "midnight schools" and "morning schools" as well in order to accommodate those on evening and night shifts. Should these be considered "second class" students, content with inferior buildings, less adequate labs, smaller libraries, a second-string teaching staff? Should prominent professors lecture only when it is convenient to them, or should some of them also go on the night shift, on the swing shift, and to the factories where it would be more convenient for the working students? Such questions were being raised by letter writers, and printed by the apparently sympathetic editors.

A folder containing the day's crop of perhaps 50 to 75 letters lay on the desk and we asked to be permitted to pick a letter at random. The letter dealt with a problem which had attracted much attention in the Soviet press: the problem of "overschooling." It came from the mother of a second grader who wrote "We adults have achieved the seven-hour work day, but my boy still works very hard for nine hours (at school and at home) every day. Please add my voice to those who feel that we must provide more free time for our children."

A special feature of the newspaper is entitled "After Izvestia Published an Article." Under that heading, the editors said,

> we keep track of problems mentioned in our columns. If the problem is unsolved, we remind those responsible for a solution. We print their letters too, and report their action or

> explanation. If it is satisfactory, our readers let us know. If not, they let us know that too and we keep after the authorities.
>
> For example, some time ago we received a report from one of our regional correspondents in Turkmenian Republic that some houses built for schools and kindergartens but taken over for other purposes during the war had still not been returned. The local authorities found it convenient to perpetuate the "emergency." We printed a short article giving factual information about the case. It wasn't long before we received a letter from the secretary of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Turkmenian Republic announcing that the buildings were being restored to the schools. The letter was in the "After Izvestia Published an Article" column.

The comparative analysis summarized in the next chapter indicates that Izvestia's education coverage was the most critical in tone (as well as the most widely varied) of all countries' newspapers studied. During the study period (1961) 58 percent of its education items were letters to the editor. One-fourth were contributed by teachers, professors, and other pedagogical experts, 17.4 percent by educational administrators, 8.7 percent by parents and students. These were the largest percentages in these categories of all newspapers studied.

*

Komsomolskaya Pravda is the daily newspaper of the Young Communist League. With a national circulation of 3½ million, it has been a pace-setter in the transformation of the Soviet press. It also takes a lead in the discussion of questions involving youth and education. The special task of the paper, said one of the editors,

> is to assist in the education of the young generation in the spirit of Communist morality. Our main emphasis is on the deeper meanings of that morality. We attempt to make our paper a forum for the expression of views and the exchange of ideas among our young people.
>
> Sooner or later all major problems confronting the youth of our nation, even such philosophical questions as the meaning of life, nature of morality, life under Communism, receive critical attention in our columns. We make a point of printing dissenting or minority opinions and comments by readers and specialists on these subjects.

The major editorial departments are propaganda, Komsomol life, (including local sections), education (including a section for primary and secondary schools and another for higher education), sports, literature and arts, international news, science and technology, and letters.

The department of letters is again the largest. The number of letters received was reported to be between 200,000 and 400,000 a year. As an aggressive and in its way iconoclastic newspaper, Komsomolskaya Pravda prides itself on its ability to cut through red tape and "get things done," a deputy editor told us. He said:

> When some of our readers write in to say that certain authorities in certain places are not attentive to the needs of young people, that's enough for us to send one of our correspondents to investigate the matter quietly. The purpose is not to get a story but to see what the problem is and to try to solve it. We write a story about it only if it is a common problem or one that all people should know about, or if there is no other way to bring about a solution.
>
> When we write a story it's not to create a sensation but to get results. We do that only after we've exhausted other avenues. Actually, the power of our paper is great and we seldom have to resort to exposure. But when we have to do it we will not be intimidated. We follow each case through to the end; this is our moral obligation to readers.
>
> Of course we make mistakes. In one affair we relied upon the decision of the district court as conclusive and wrote an editorial based on that decision. Well, the case was appealed and the higher court reversed the decision. Of course we published an apology.

The education department unites its school and higher education sections under a single head. The work of a network of outside correspondents and contributors is coordinated by a headquarters staff of four newsmen in the schools section and three in the higher education section.

The school section receives four to six hundred letters a month, and even more when a particularly lively or controversial issue is debated. "Our reputation is based on following through on all letters," the editor told us. . "Many of these are, of course, stimulated by our own published letters or articles, or through correspondence. Some deal with the same subjects and problems. For these we prepare form replies. Others are kept for personal reply by a member of our staff, or for referral to a qualified specialist. Every writer has the right to demand a reply by a knowledgeable and responsible person. This is not a law but a Party decision which we follow."

A criminal case was brought to light not long before our visit.

> We received a letter [said the editor] charging a school director in Kazakhstan with selling certificates to people who did not complete their courses of study. We sent our regional correspondent to investigate. Before we could receive his story, the school director sent us an indignant wire denouncing our correspondent as a liar. Next we sent one of our headquarters staff. An article was written on the basis of a thorough investigation and led to an official charge against the director. He was found guilty.

The editor also recalled an instance of opposition to official state policy involving the establishment of agricultural high schools. "We argued that such schools should be attached to state farms," he said. "We saw no need to teach agriculture in city schools. The State Commission opposed us and argued its case through our pages. The Minister of Education visited us privately. But we persisted until the official policy was reversed."

Not all published letters deal with weighty matters of state. About the time of our visit a Club of Young Naturalists in a high school in Novosibirsk shared its "secrets" of raising sweet corn with clubs of other schools (all of which have an experimental plot). A young woman from Moscow wrote that her husband resented the fact that while he was in military service she acquired a higher education. "I have finally left my husband," she declared. "Tell me, am I not right?" Within a few days thousands of replies debated the pros and cons of her case.

Another letter published under the heading "WE TELL YOU ABOUT A GOOD PERSON" expressed the gratitude of a group of former students. When their teacher's husband died, the letter recalled, the group called on the teacher to comfort and console her -- but she consoled them, instead. "Shining example of a human being suffering but not crushed, maintaining a serene, optimistic outlook on life."

The question of school reform had occupied much space and the attention of all departments for a long time. An editor described the purposes and nature of the discussion:

> The need was clear, but the problem was what approach to take. Many different opinions were expressed and debated. Once the law was passed, it became our task to demonstrate its implication in concrete detail, to share lessons, experiences, suggestions about its successful implementation, to help avoid mistakes and failures -- in other words to carry on the broadest possible public discussion of our most pressing educational problems among students, professors, pedagogical experts, and lay readers.
>
> This discussion was essential because the law only set the general outlines; the details had to be developed from practical experience, and experiences had to be shared and discussed as broadly as possible. Not all schools were prepared for polytechnic education, and certainly not all places of work were prepared. There were problems of organization, of training, of time and place, and of relationships between the school and factory or farm -- many problems, many difficulties! We were the first to raise many of the questions, point out mistakes, and stimulate discussion. Principals and professors, students and parents, and just ordinary readers wrote in many suggestions, told us about their experiences.

Much discussion revolved around whether the polytechnic instruction should be based at the school or at the plant, what training the polytechnic instructor should have, how to make polytechnic education serve the needs of the future rather than only of the present.

Komsomolskaya Pravda had pioneered in sponsoring and publishing the results of public opinion polls on such questions as "humanity's ability to avert war," the standard of living, the young family, and moral and ethical concepts of Soviet youth. Extended discussions featuring outside contributions were devoted to such themes as "scientific and humanistic values," "life under Communism," "what is happiness?". In the opinion of the editors, such features served organizational as well as educational purposes. The themes were amplified and further developed in local youth papers, and led to the formation of readers' clubs discussing and acting upon the "lessons."

*

Pionerskaya Pravda is the central organ and one of some 24 newspapers published by the Young Pioneers, an organization of 18 million boys and girls between ages 10 and 15. A professional staff of nearly a hundred and regional correspondents many times that number write and edit the two-color illustrated tabloid. It comes out twice a week in nearly 4 million copies.

The major editorial departments of the paper are Pioneer life (including a special section designed to be read by older to younger children); schools and education; Pioneer culture and sports; science and technology; literature and the arts; humor; illustrations; spot news; and letters. The last is again the largest department occupying the time of about one-third of the headquarters staff who read and process between two and three hundred letters a day.

The department of letters is divided into regional sections headed by persons who know their area and maintain personal contact with many letter writers. The letters published in the newspaper deal with children's friendships, boy-girl relationships, family problems, and an endless variety of school and other experiences, difficulties, achievements. The types of complaints most common at the time of our interviews, we were told, were those claiming that "school is dull because we have no pioneer leader"; or "the pioneer leader we elected turned out to be no good; what shall we do now?" and protesting that "the whole group suffers just because a few get bad marks."

We asked permission to see a few letters lying on the desk. One said:

> Dear Editor, Pionerskaya Pravda:
>
> I bought a pair of skis from my own money. When I took them home, I discovered that one of them was split. Of course I returned to the store and got another pair in exchange. But how can such negligence happen? Why doesn't the factory take better care? Why doesn't anyone at the store inspect the skis?

Another letter, too long to copy, expressed the shock of a 14-year old boy whose father was discovered stealing wool from a collective farm. He wrote about "the need to express my shame, the need to help prevent such things from happening to others." The letter was being edited for publication. "The attitude toward common property is closely related to the attitude toward work," said the editor. "We must cultivate a special feeling of pride in what belongs to all the people."

> I must say /he continued/ that it is sobering to have the day-by-day experience of selecting these letters and watching the response to them. Some time ago we published a letter from a boy in the Ukraine who wrote: "When I look at the map and see that there are no more blank areas on it I get discouraged. What can we explore, what can we do that's really exciting when we grow up?" You should have seen the tongue-lashing he received from our readers. Another letter from a boy in the Ukraine asked, in effect, why study when we are guaranteed a job anyway? Over 6,000 replies came from children and adults. We selected the most interesting and varied responses for publication.

All letters receive some sort of answer. It is often a routine reply developed for certain types of common queries or comments. But many require special attention. These are sent to the departments most closely related to the problem raised, or sometimes to outside educators, psychologists, or other specialists who agree to reply to them.

The department of letters is also a center of organizational work. It maintains contact with Pioneer groups and other youth clubs, and arranges programs and visits with artists, with actors of the children's theaters, famous athletes, brigades of Communist labor, scientists, cosmonauts, etc.

As on other mass circulation newspapers, editorial work in the strict sense is only a part -- and sometimes the smaller part -- of the duties of the staff. The editor told us:

> Sometimes we organize affairs which get too big for us. If that happens, we ask the Central Committee of the Young Pioneers to take over, or appeal for a special subsidy. Last summer, for example, we sponsored vacation tours for 5 million children. We also organized a meeting of 2,000 children from all parts of the country. It was held in the Carpathian mountains. The purpose was to share experiences, climb mountains, and spend some leisure time together in a large collective.
>
> We spend much of our time planning programs, meetings, competitions. For example, I am now going to Bulgaria to a meeting of editors of children's newspapers from various socialist countries to arrange an international sports competition. The best teams will go to Bulgaria to live in an international children's camp.
>
> We also visit schools and maintain contact with teachers' and parents' organizations.

> If you ask me whether I consider myself primarily a journalist or an educator, I cannot answer easily. I am a graduate of a pedagogical institute and my first profession was that of a teacher. Later I attended the Faculty of Journalism and worked as a journalist. Now I combine the two and see no conflict between them. But if you ask me to look deeper inside myself, I must say that I cannot help being basically a teacher. I think that's how we all feel, even those who are only journalists by training and have never taught school.
>
> That feeling is simply an outcome of the way we conceive our work. True, the ability to write well and interestingly is a basic requirement. But most of our time is not spent behind a desk polishing our style. Most of our time is spent in the field -- with children, parents, teachers, Pioneer groups and clubs at the schools, discussing problems, helping, organizing. That's why we feel we are organizers and educators at heart rather than only journalists in the narrow sense of considering the product of our pen an end in itself.

"In general," the editor said, "our main task is not only to inform or entertain but also to help youngsters choose the aims of life according to the best experience of our society. We want to show them the values of love of labor, of nature, and of deep personal friendships."

Experience in teaching, skill in journalism, and familiarity with Pioneer life are qualifications not easily found in one person. A new staff member is usually assigned to an experienced colleague for an apprenticeship of a year or more. This, in the words of the editor, is what is expected of him:

> There will be perhaps two or three missions before he is to write anything. Some of these will take him to distant parts of the country and may take several weeks. He observes and assists his experienced colleague. He learns how to interview children, learns about the problems of Pioneer life and about children and schools across the country.
>
> After each mission he participates in a staff discussion. The lessons and experiences of the mission are discussed, evaluated: What are the problems, what are the prospects and difficulties, how could the newspaper help? He can write any time he is ready. But he is expected to keep in close contact with his senior colleague and with the people and the situations he writes about.
>
> At one point during his first year the new staff member will decide on a theme or mission of his own. By now he is aware of the most urgent problems. We encourage him to be imaginative, independent, and to develop his own themes and missions. In addition to the tasks of common concern, we encourage each staff member to develop a specialty -- nature study, animals, fairy tales, some aspect of science or art, etc.

> The new staff member develops a theme and mission of his own. He can go anywhere and take as long as he needs. He gets all necessary support. When he comes back he can have the time and assistance to do a good job.
>
> What do we mean by a "good job"? Well, it's definitely not the number of stories or words written. I think I can best characterize it as a quality of involvement. His involvement in the lives and problems of children will have a "multiplying effect" on the sense of involvement of our readers; it will evoke comments and contributions, it will lead to an exchange of ideas, to sharing of experiences, to further activity and broadening of interests. Soon our new staff member develops a style of his own -- a style of communicating with readers which helps readers to communicate with each other all over the country, which is the important thing. What he writes will be a catalyst, so to speak. I think that is what we mean by a "good job."

The "themes" and "missions" of staff members include the full range of school and youth organizational problems. We asked the school editor to give us examples of the specific "cases" she was engaged in on the day of our visit. She opened some folders and explained as she leafed through their contents:

> Often a school would call and ask us to look into a problem. Here I was invited to a meeting of the teachers of a new boarding school, one that has not yet developed its own traditions. The reason they invite somebody from Pionerskaya Pravda is that they know we have as much or more experience in different ways of organizing and handling problems as any pedagogical expert.
>
> I did not like the situation I found, but I don't think the problem is sufficiently common or serious yet to call for publication. The problem is that there is too much friction at the school, the general attitude is not sufficiently warm and friendly, and the children have not developed friendship circles to help each other, encourage good discipline, and promote scholarship.* I try to bring to these teachers the experience of other schools in solving such a problem. First of all, I thought that the teachers' attitude itself was not friendly and warm, and without that nothing will succeed. Also, they have not involved the senior pupils in their planning. They are in the best position to help the younger pupils, to help them with dressing, cleaning their room, doing their lessons, telling stories, giving small gifts on special occasions -- all the things must be stimulated and organized before the situation can be expected to improve.

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*The friendship circle is the smallest subdivision of the Pioneer organization, formed by children on the basis of special friendships. Two or more such "links" form a detachment which is the Pioneer group of the class. Detachments are combined into one brigade for each school.

Another task had to do with a project of some brigades to collect scrap metal needed by our factories. Pioneer leaders wrote us that this would be much easier if they knew what this metal was going into so the children would have a concrete idea of the usefulness of their efforts. We decided that they were right. We found out that some of the scrap metal goes into the building of a new railroad bridge on the Siberian railway. We reported the building of that railroad bridge in picture and story. It was a successful feature and made the Pioneer brigades very proud of their work.

The third "case" has to do with all the discussion these days about the twenty year plan, and how it will achieve communism in our country. This is a letter from a worker who writes that when he asks children what communism means they say that it means that life will be free and easy and nobody will work any more. He writes that this disturbs him very much; children should not grow up with this idea because there will still be many needs in our own country and in other parts of the world and as long as people are in need anywhere work should be considered a noble and necessary part of life, not an evil thing. He says he wants to speak to these young people through the pages of Pionerskaya Pravda. His style is poor, but he has good ideas. It is possible that in time he will become one of our regular correspondents. This is how we recruit many of those who write in our newspapers. To be absolutely honest, however, I must tell you that the correspondents most popular with our readers are usually the great athletes and cosmonauts of our country whose names are known to every school child.

Some Conclusions

The studies included in this chapter presented opportunities for comparison and contrast with each other and with the United States. Education is conceived in all three countries as a primarily national responsibility, and educational policy-making as an overtly political process. The range and functions of local responsibilities vary. The press of all three countries is largely dominated by national organs. Sharp political and ideological differentiation is cultivated on a mass scale in France and to a lesser extent (but still more than in the U.S.) in England, but is submerged in the national perspective in the Soviet Union. Relationships between education and the press range from informal contacts between independent structures in the West to formal organizational interlocking in the East. Educational reform attracts much attention in all three countries, but the methods vary from open political contest to comprehensive planning and directed transformation.

In England and Wales major resource decisions in education are largely centralized, although administrative, personnel, and curriculum policies are mostly locally determined. A relatively high degree of educational freedom and autonomy, protected by national power, does not mean that the education profession enjoys abundant support or a robust institutional position. The national scope of institutional relationships means that educational decision-making is an integral part of the national political process. Education is a major issue in platforms and campaigns, a frequent subject of Parliamentary debate and inquiry, and a focal point of social and political -- as well as educational -- reform movements.

Education thus plays an important role in the national press. The client relationships of the dominant newspapers are also national in scope. They center in political parties and in the major industrial concentrations. Since the "Northcliff revolution" at the turn of the century, the British press has largely completed the transition from party to commercial press without, however, giving up political orientation.

The major centers of communication activity involving education in Great Britain are the Ministry of Education, the National Union of Teachers, the largest Local Education Authorities, the broadcasting networks, and the national newspapers. The Ministry of Education has a clearly defined financial role well recognized by the national press and apparently not considered much of a threat to private economic and other institutional interests.

Also, the National Union of Teachers is generally recognized -- although not necessarily approved -- as the major voice speaking for teachers and education. The N.U.T. is able to stimulate Parliamentary activity, mobilize teacher support, and focus national attention on educational and cultural problems. Its difficulties, however, are similar to those of its American counterparts. N.U.T. publicists stressed the need for public relations in a public service profession, the problem of tension and suspicion between newsmen and schoolmen, the organizational competition for space in the national press, the conflict between informational and commercial requirements of news treatment, and the necessity to adjust to the requirements of the press.

The design of French public education is centralized blueprint with both client and supervisory relationships leading to the seat of national power in Paris. Teacher and student organizations maintain their tradition of militant political activity dating back to the French revolution.

The postwar French press emerged with temporary financial support from the national government. Within ten years, however, economic pressures cut the number of Paris dailies to half the 1946 figure. The transition from a primarily party or "opinion" press to a largely commercial or "information" press was underway.

Today both types of papers exist side-by-side. Their positions on the left vs. right-wing political spectrum and on the special readership vs. mass-audience-appeal commercial continuum largely determine their relationship to other institutions and their approaches to the reporting of events.

The Ministry of Education, the Union of Teachers and the Union of Students are major public organizations interacting with the ideologically and politically differentiated organs of the press. With client relationships of the educational system uneasily centered in the national government and those of the press differentiated along the political and the commercial dimensions, a complex pattern of interaction is characteristic of the structure of school-press relationships in France. (The case study reported in Chapter V illuminates the effects of differential political and ideological perspectives upon the treatment of news within the French press system.)

In the Soviet Union, as in the United States, a single overall perspective rather than sharp ideological differentiation,is characteristic of both education and the press. However, unlike in the other countries, comprehensive planning, public management, and directed change are dominant features of Soviet institutional life. Client relationships center in major public organizations. Resource-allocation functions are performed by government planning committees, regional economic councils, and the State Planning Commission. These organizations collect recommendations from all enterprises, reconcile local and national needs and special interests, allocate monies and set goals in accordance with priorities embodied in Party programs and approved by the Supreme Soviet.

Major mass organizations, including the Communist Party, have specialized branches working with the public schools and conducting educational programs of their own. The organs of the government, the Party, and other mass organizations (which make up the press of the country) further promote educational objectives and planning. Interlocking responsibilities and joint planning thus relate all major organizations to each other and to the public schools.

As all mass organizations overlap in their educational concerns and interest in the public schools, all major organs have clearly recognized educational functions and departments. In line with recent educational reforms and with the ongoing transformation of the Soviet press itself, broad participation, mass "involvement," and an active hand in tackling problems of "life and work" are the major educational tasks of the press. Educators and other readers, including parents and students, write much of the educational "coverage," a large proportion of which consists of critical letters, exchanges of experience with educational reform and innovation, and reports of educational "trouble-shooting," as will be shown in the next chapter. Education editors plan special campaigns, events, conferences, etc., jointly with the educational organizations. The themes of stimulating initiative and joint press-school activity in planning and carrying out common tasks ran through our interviews.

CHAPTER V

CASE STUDIES AND COMPARATIVE ANALYSES OF NEWSPAPER CONTENT

> Human resource development . . . may be a more realistic and reliable indicator of modernization or development than any other single measure. It is one of the necessary conditions for all kinds of growth -- social, political, cultural, or economic. . . . (p. 14)
>
> A human resource development strategy and a program for general development of which it is a principal part should strive to build consensus and engender enthusiasm of the entire nation . . . . Plans are in themselves futile exercises unless leaders become committed to them and the public at large understands and accepts them. (p. 223)
>
> Frederick Harbison and Charles A. Myers in Education, Manpower, and Economic Growth; Strategies in Human Resource Development.

This chapter presents the findings of the foreign and comparative press content studies included in this project. Two special case studies and a comparative investigation of educational news coverage in eight countries will be summarized.

The first case study is a special investigation of the treatment of education in the British national press conducted independently at the time of the interviews reported in the previous chapter. The discussion of the findings of this study will make reference to some results of the comparative analysis based on a study period following that of the case study.

The second case study summarizes an investigation of the content manifestations of political tendencies and ideological perspectives apparent in our interviews in France, and characteristic of the French national press. The study involves a criminal event implicating a teacher as reported by different groups of politically and ideologically differentiated newspapers. The summary is based on the more detailed account and tabulations in Appendix II-E.

The comparative analysis of press coverage including 53 daily newspapers in eight countries is reported in full in Appendixes II-C and II-D. In this chapter we shall summarize the highlights of findings based on measures of formal composition and topical composition and structure of relevant message samples in the U.S. and in each of the countries studied.

The relationship of these studies to the interviews and observations reported in the previous chapter is an indirect one. There was no attempt to follow up specific episodes or ideas discussed in the interviews, or to make the time periods coincide. The purpose in both interviews and content studies was to get at the dynamics of representation in different systems. At the same time, as we have pointed out before, the description of concrete historical developments and situations was also considered pertinent.

In a larger sense, these findings may be considered indicative of cultural approaches to human resource development as conceived in the statements cited above. In that sense they are complementary to the policies, views, and press-school relationships discussed in the previous chapter.

Treatment of education in the British national press

A special study of the treatment of education in the British national press was conducted by Evans (1962) and the results made available to this project.* The findings are summarized here as an introduction to the discussion of educational press coverage in an inter-cultural and comparative perspective, and as indicative of some of the institutional relationships, events, and activities discussed in the previous chapter.

The period of analysis was six months from October 1, 1960 to March 31, 1961. Every issue and every relevant item published in eight national daily and eight Sunday papers was included in the analysis. A sequel to the general content study followed the course of the "pay pause controversy" into the summer and fall of 1961. (The affair culminated in the threat of a national teacher strike in October, 1961 during the period of comparative analysis reported in the second part of this chapter.)

Table 3 lists the daily and Sunday papers studied, gives average circulations during the study period, and presents measures of the amount and proportion of space devoted to education news during the entire six-month period. It can be seen that the liberal Guardian and labor Daily Herald devoted nearly twice the percentage of news space that other papers gave to education news. The two "quality" Sunday papers -- the Sunday Times and The Observer (even without the special supplement) -- led by equally high margins in the Sunday field.

Subject categories

The types of subjects discussed in the news coverage have been classified into ten broad categories. These categories, the number of items, amount of space, and percentage of total education coverage devoted to each subject area can be seen on Table 4. In considering these findings, we shall also make reference to the results of the comparative topic analysis of press content based on a later study period (October, 1961), reported in Appendix II-D, and summarized in the last section of this chapter.

Teachers. The subject of "teacher shortage, training, and salaries" attracted most attention -- over one-fifth of the space devoted to all education topics. In the comparative topic analysis, the subject area of teaching and teachers also ranked first both in emphasis and in attention, and the topic of "teachers' salaries, economic status, and welfare" ranked third in news value. (An explanation of these measures can be found in the introduction to Appendix II-D; the figures are in Appendix II-D-19 through 22, Tables 5.1 - 5.3, and Appendix II-D-52 through 54, Tables 13 and 14.) The earlier study period included both the Ministry's campaign to attract married women teachers back into the profession and the launching of a N.U.T. salary campaign, discussed in the previous chapter. Later the salary issue erupted into the "pay pause controversy" and led to a teacher strike threat. The comparative study reported later in this chapter

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*The investigator is indebted to Mr. Raymond Evans of the University of Manchester, England, for his contribution and cooperation.

TABLE 3

AVERAGE CIRCULATION AND EDUCATION NEWS CONTENT OF NATIONAL DAILY AND SUNDAY PAPERS IN GREAT BRITAIN FOR SIX MONTHS*

		Education News		
Papers	Average Circulation July - Dec. incl. 1960	No. of items	Column inches of type	Percentage of total news space %
Daily Papers				
The Times	260,000	68	734	0.19
The Guardian	212,000	85	1,383	0.51
Daily Telegraph	1,250,000	89	936	0.24
Daily Mail	2,825,000	56	730	0.19
Daily Express	4,270,000	44	592	0.24
Daily Herald	1,400,000	58	760	0.37
Daily Mirror	4,650,000	29	569	0.19
Daily Sketch	1,075,000	23	370	0.18
Sunday Papers				
Sunday Times	1,001,000	16	202	0.43
The Observer	738,000	17	748**	1.90**
Sunday Express	3,705,000	10	92	0.18
Sunday Dispatch	1,519,000	5	132	0.28
News of the World	6,664,000	3	65	0.14
The People	5,568,000	5	102	0.22
Reynolds News	329,000	6	136	0.23
Sunday Pictorial	5,461,000	1	18	0.03
Total		515	7,569	

*The period to which the above Table refers is 1st October, 1960 to 31st March, 1961.

**The 748 column inches coverage in _The Observer_ includes a special supplement of 560 column inches on _Technical Education_. If this one item is omitted, the percentage of total news space devoted by this paper to educational news is 0.48 per cent.

indicates that discussion of teachers and teaching ranked first only in the British and Polish press samples.

Technical education. Public concern about the alleged inadequacy of British technical and scientific education as compared with that of the Soviet Union and the U.S. was reflected in that subject receiving over 16 percent of all education news space during the six-month study period. Most of that, however, came from _The Observer's_ special supplement on Technical Education. The

TABLE 4

SUBJECT MATTER CLASSIFICATION OF EDUCATION NEWS IN ALL PAPERS STUDIED

Subject	No. of items	Column inches	Percentage of total educational news space %
Parent-teacher-pupil Relations and Complaints	45	665	8.8
11-Plus Examination	31	413	5.5
Health and Sex Education	28	399	5.3
Teacher Shortage, Training and Salaries	157	1,683	22.2
General Development of Education	49	780	10.3
G.C.E. Examinations	23	265	3.5
Educational Conferences	20	447	5.9
Mass Media of Communication and Education	57	818	10.8
Technical and Scientific Education	32	1,250	16.5
Miscellaneous Topics (Truancy, School Meals, Vandalism in Schools, etc.)	73	849	11.2
Total	515	7,569	100.0

comparative study at a later period did not reveal a high degree of emphasis focused upon scientific or technological topics, although discussion of education and student life in Russia and other countries continued to receive sustained attention.

Other subjects. The subject of "mass media of communication and and education," occupying over 10 percent of all educational news space, was stimulated by the N.U.T. Conference on Popular Culture and Personal Responsibility, discussed in the previous chapter. This subject received no attention during the later comparative study period. However, the cluster of subjects represented in the six-month study under the headings of "parent-teacher-pupil relations and complaints" and such "miscellaneous topics" as truancy, school, meals, and vandalism in schools were prominent features of the press coverage during both periods. Most of these consisted of personalized and sensational treatments of individual cases in the popular and tabloid press, largely revolving around student transgressions and teacher misdeeds.

The remaining subjects dealt largely with various aspects of school system organization, administration, and reform, also prominent topics during the later study period. On the whole (1) the status and problems of teachers, (2) educational organization and reform at home and abroad, and (3) the more violent and lurid aspects of school life were found to be the major features of British press coverage in both studies. (A further discussion of the comparative study will be found later in this chapter.)

Differences among papers.

An examination of the different patterns of news space allocation presented in Table 5 shows that all daily papers except the *Daily Sketch* (the only one without an education correspondent) gave substantial *attention to* problems of teacher training, shortage, and salaries. Topics dealing with educational development, organization, reform, were selected mostly by the "quality" papers and the pro-labor *Daily Herald*. Stories of dramatic personal violence, sex, and conflict (*included mostly* in the first two and the last subjects of Table 5) were found primarily in the popular and tabloid press.

With the exception of the *Sunday Times* and *The Observer*, the Sunday papers did not deal with a great *variety of educational* topics. Evans (1962) pointed out in his study that "the popular Sunday papers concentrated on 'human' stories, usually critical of the teaching profession or the educational system, giving prominence to isolated instances of discord in schools, disputes between parents and teachers, etc."

Political orientation. Political party (especially "left wing") support may *provide a possible alternative* to commercial dependence. But commercial client relationships and market functions also predispose the newspaper toward politically significant tendencies in news reporting regardless of overt party affiliation.

Our study of the ideological perspectives and differential political tendencies in the French press (reported in Appendix II-E, and summarized in the next section of this chapter) indicates that "right wing" or conservative party affiliation tends mostly to intensify the ideological outlook which dependence on advertising clientele imparts to the commercial paper. Evans (1962) came to similar conclusions in attempting to reconstruct the "image of the teacher" presented in his six-month sample of the national press. The image presented in the conservative press was similar to that of the "independent" commercial press, although the educational and income level to which the newspaper appeals did make a difference. For example, the "quality" conservative *Daily Telegraph*

> presented an "image" of the teacher which showed his function as important, and, especially in the more highly qualified ranks, requiring better remuneration, but more emphasis was given to the teacher's faults than to his virtues. Opportunities were taken to introduce an unfavourable aspect even in articles which

TABLE 5

PERCENT OF EDUCATION NEWS DEVOTED TO DIFFERENT TYPES OF SUBJECT MATTER IN EACH PAPER

Subject	The Times	The Guardian	Daily Telegraph	Daily Mail	Daily Express	Daily Herald	Daily Mirror	Daily Sketch	Sunday Times	The Observer	Sunday Express	Sunday Dispatch	News of the World	The People	Reynolds News	Sunday Pictorial
Parent-teacher-pupil Relations and Complaints	1.1	0.2	3.3	16.8	34.9	7.9	14.6	18.8	--	2.3	41.3	--	30.8	--	--	--
Health and Sex Education	1.4	1.7	2.5	4.0	4.2	8.3	19.5	16.4	--	--	--	39.4	--	--	--	--
11-Plus Examination	1.6	1.9	3.2	2.2	8.3	12.8	4.2	2.4	--	--	27.2	--	69.2	76.5	5.9	--
Teacher Shortage, Training and Salaries	19.6	21.6	38.7	42.8	17.4	20.7	15.6	5.3	32.7	2.4	9.8	42.4	--	--	29.4	--
General Development of Education	21.9	16.9	16.5	2.6	13.9	12.6	3.0	4.8	23.3	--	--	--	--	17.6	--	100.0
Mass Media of Communication and Education	18.3	7.8	6.8	16.9	6.3	17.5	12.7	34.3	10.4	0.8	--	--	--	--	57.4	--
G.C.E. Examinations	3.7	8.3	3.8	4.7	2.8	2.4	6.3	5.3	--	0.5	--	--	--	--	--	--
Educational Conferences	15.8	15.3	6.2	0.9	1.8	4.9	2.8	5.0	--	0.8	--	--	--	--	--	--
Technical and Scientific Education	7.9	18.7	12.6	1.5	2.4	6.8	4.6	4.2	26.8	89.8	--	--	--	--	7.3	--
Miscellaneous Topics (Truancy, School Meals, Vandalism in Schools, etc.)	8.7	7.6	6.4	7.6	8.0	6.1	16.7	3.5	6.8	3.4	21.7	18.2	--	5.9	--	--

> were generally factual or favourable, and the correspondence columns were used to give prominence to the view that many teachers did not work as hard as members of other professions.

The "independent" popular Daily Express presented teachers mostly in news columns and cartoons as generally

> old-fashioned, out of touch with the modern world, largely incapable of breaking loose from traditional ideas, and dictatorial: here perhaps the Daily Express felt obliged to live up to its own "image" of a paper opposed to "authority." In Daily Express cartoons, the teacher was usually a severe-looking, elderly man dressed in clothes fashionable at the turn of the century, or a plump, middle-aged woman with no dress sense at all. The schools, furniture, work exhibited and general atmosphere were Victorian in character, deliberately unlike present-day standards. One got the impression of a profession and a system desperately resisting the exciting new ideas of the mid-20th Century, and this "out-of-date image" of the teacher was reflected in many of the news items.

Study of the Daily Mail -- a conservative paper which had recently absorbed the "left wing" News Chronicle -- indicated a juxtaposition of two images "so different that the resultant picture was very confusing," Evans wrote, describing the portrayals as follows:

> By stressing the urgent need of more teachers, a very strong "image" of the teacher emerged as an extremely valuable member of the community whose work was of vital importance to the nation. However, by giving prominence to stories of individual shortcomings of some teachers and to letters from disgruntled parents, the Daily Mail also presented a picture of the teacher as harsh, unreasonable, dictatorial and sometimes not even competent.

The liberal Guardian writing for a well-educated higher income readership was characterized as presenting

> a strong image of the teacher as a person of considerable value to the community, with a high sense of professional responsibility and of vocation, fairly adequately paid in the lower ranks of the profession, where the academic and cultural background was sometimes inadequate, but insufficiently rewarded in the case of the more highly qualified teacher.

As the paper which puts forward the Labor party point of view, Evans reported, the Daily Herald presented the only totally positive image of teachers in the public schools where the majority of children are educated:

> The paper presented a strong, steady "image" of the teacher as a person whose work is of the greatest value to the community, with a high sense of vocation and professional responsibility,

sensible, moderate, really concerned with the best interests of the country's young people and badly paid. Although the Daily Herald, in common with other popular papers, gave some emphasis to "human interest" stories, it devoted far less space to individual lapses of teachers than did its competitors, doing little to impair the favourable picture of the teacher. This favourable "image" remained extremely steady during the whole period reviewed, and emerged both in the news columns and in leading articles.

The "pay pause controversy." What happens when papers take an editorial stand for reasons of belief, teacher union influence, or popular appeal, in an issue which later becomes politically controversial and potentially embarrassing to their "party line"? The "pay pause controversy" of 1961 presented an opportunity to observe the effect of such a clash of forces upon the coverage of education in the national press.

The affair had been brewing for some time. During the six-month study period ending in March, 1961, the teacher unions and representatives of the local authorities had been negotiating in the Burnham committee for a nationwide pay increase. In its 42 years of existence, the Burnham committee had served as a national bargaining board* whose awards the government could accept or reject but not amend — and had always accepted. The press gave general editorial support to the teachers' case. In July, 1961 the Chancellor of the Exchequer announced a "pay pause" for all government employees. The Minister of Education rejected the Burnham award for the first time, and made his own salary offer. Evans reported in a sequel to his analysis that "even at this stage, most papers' reactions were sympathetic to the teachers and generally non-partisan."

In August, however, the Conservative Central Office entered the controversy supporting the government's case against the Burnham award and — even more ominously for teachers — supporting legislation to revise the Burnham machinery by giving the Minister of Education a voice in future negotiations. The action precipitated a political battle, the threat of a general teacher strike, and bitter strife within the union itself.

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*The origin of the Burnham committee is attributed to the deep unrest among teachers and the increasing militancy of the profession between 1917 and 1919 when low salaries combined with a teacher shortage led to strikes in 32 areas. A young classroom teacher and strike leader, later President of the N.U.T. and Member of Parliament, wrote that the European revolutions from 1917 onwards also impelled the government to act for, as in 1848, "at the head of every continental revolutionary movement, or near the head of it, stands an ex-teacher." (W. G. Cove in The Schoolmaster, March 9, 1923.) Although despite the establishment of the Burnham committee, by 1921 "teachers were, if anything, slightly worse off in real terms than they had been before the war," dissatisfaction with the scales was somewhat offset by the fact that "the salary problem had moved from the realms of local caprice and individual squabbling to a national bargaining board." (Tropp, 1957, pp. 212-213.)

The Conservative Party announcement also resulted in a reversal of the editorial stand of those papers which generally supported the government. Evans (1962) reported:

> The Times, Daily Telegraph and Daily Mail changed course, and their editorials accused the teachers of stubbornness, selfishness and irresponsibility in face of the country's economic plight. On the other hand, the national dailies which generally oppose the present Government (The Guardian, Daily Herald and the Daily Mirror) sympathised strongly with the teachers and praised their moderation in view of the Government's unfair treatment. The Daily Express, which had been opposed to restrictive financial measures for some time, and which takes every opportunity of asserting its independence, supported the teachers' case for the full implementation of the Burnham award. The editorial columns of the Daily Sketch did not react strongly to the later stages of the pay agitation. At these later stages only The Observer among the Sunday papers took a clear position against the Government.

The controversy dominated the press coverage during the October, 1961 comparative study period whose results are reported later in this chapter. It erupted again two years later when the Associated Press reported on March 28, 1963, that "Thousands of angry school teachers streamed to Parliament with military precision yesterday and protested new pay scales set by Education Minister Edward Boyle. . . ."

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We have explored some indications of the ways in which the client relationships, market functions, and political orientations of the British press were reflected in the coverage of education in general and the treatment of specific issues. A further investigation focusing on differential tendencies in multiparty news reporting in the French press, is summarized in the next section.

Ideological perspectives within the same system; "l'affair Amiel" in the French press

The purpose of the case study reported in Appendix II-E and summarized in this section was to explore whether (and to what extent) the institutional perspectives revealed through the comparative analysis of press coverage in different national systems also obtain among the ideologically and politically differentiated organs within a single national system.

A basic assumption underlying the study, and the methodology of "proposition analysis" designed for it, was that, in fact, all news are views; that all editorial choice patterns in what and what not to make public (and in what proportion, with what emphasis, etc.) have an ideological basis and a political dimension rooted in the structural characteristics of the medium.

Our case study inquired into the coverage of a criminal event in the French press. The French press is in the process of transformation from a "party press" to a commercially-sponsored press system. Both types of newspapers exist side-by-side. They differ mainly in their criteria of news selection and editing. The party press selects news and views according to standards relevant to its political clients' ideological perspectives. In a multi-party system, it creates and cultivates publics of different -- and at times radically opposed -- political tendencies. The commercial press selects material according to standards relevant to its chief clients', the advertisers', need for broad mass appeal. It creates and cultivates a public perspective which may cut across party lines.

The event was the probably unintended (but not entirely accidental) fatal shooting of a student by a teacher, Jean Amiel. The underlying political dimension of the reporting of any event, and especially an event involving education in France, found expression in the news coverage.

The account of the study in Appendix II-E reports the background of people and events, the newspapers involved, the method of analysis, and the differential passages of propositions isolated from the total body of reportage. Tabulations and graphic illustrations indicating differences in reporting the same events among the newspapers of the political Left, the Right, and the commercial groups are also given and will not be repeated here. The following discussion will attempt to summarize the findings and relate them to the other comparative investigations reported in this chapter.

The spectrum of differential tendencies

The analysis was concerned with differences rather than with the considerable area of overlapping in the way the three press groups presented the events. The basic "facts" of the case were present in all accounts. The differential context of total propositions in which these "facts" were presented was the focus of this inquiry.

The Left press, as a whole, advanced the most overtly "political" version of the case. It seized the opportunity to make common cause with the left-leaning teachers of France in this "heart-rending affair." It viewed the crime and personality of Jean Amiel against the background of "unjust conditions." Education itself was seen as the victim of the greater crimes of reactionary subversion, harassment, neglect. Mme. Amiel became the "beautiful Antigone," victim of tyrants. Amiel himself was a victim; a modest man bearing heavy burdens, a "knight with a sad face," a symbol of the intellectual in a society ruled by wealth and privilege. Although the crime and the trial were fully reported, the differential accounts of the Left stressed social injustice as the root of personal tragedy. (Appendix II-E-14, Figure 2, illustrates the order and magnitude of the shifting perspective from Left to Right.)

With the theme of "defective personality," the balance of perspectives shifts to the Right. Hints of "abnormalities" and unknown "true causes" countered suggestions of mitigating circumstance. The alleged leftist convictions of the Amiels -- and of all teachers -- was refuted. The accounts merely observed Amiel's "contemptible" character, his dastardly deeds, and his wife's "harsh and cold face." After a "happy childhood" and "easy life," the crime must be outside the scope of social causation, or even reason. The right-wing perspective limited the scope of public discussion to a carefully circumscribed area. The crime was a mental rather than social aberration. Politics had nothing to do with it. The threat was not to liberty, learning, or justice, but to law and order.

The commercially dependent press occupied a position between the two groups of politically dependent newspapers, but, as we shall see, not in the middle. The only passage in which the commercial press itself had the highest share of representation was the theme of the "defective personality." The order of representations of the commercial press, all following the lead of the Right, were in passages disclaiming political relevance, describing the Amiels' "easy life," observing their "contemptible" conduct, and protesting the leniency of the verdict.

The commercial press shared more of the differential accounts of Left and Right than the two shared of each others'. But the commercial press also shared more of the passages favored by the Right than it did of the versions advanced primarily on the Left. Furthermore, the greater the Left leadership in advancing the propositions of a passage, the closer the commercial press was to the Right press.

While the commercial press paved the way for certain types of propositions favored by the Right, and followed the lead of the Right in others, its most striking characteristic was a strong reaction against the perspective of the Left. In the passages advanced primarily on the Left, the commercial press was an average of 29 percentage points distant from the Left, and only an average of 9 percentage points away from the Right. If we take the passages advanced primarily on the Right, however, we find the commercial press more (but still not quite) centrally located: its average distance from the Left was 24 and from the Right 19 percentage points. Across all passages the commercial press was an average of 26 percentage points distant from the Left, and 12 percentage points distant from the Right. (These distances are illustrated in Appendix II-E-13, Figure 1.)

Correlations between papers

The percent of different propositions each newspaper advanced out of all propositions contained in each passage was used to compute correlations between pairs of newspapers across all passages and thus determine the relative position of papers on the continuum of perspectives.

Appendix II-E-12, Table 2, presents the direction and magnitude of the correlations. Appendix II-E-14, Figure 3, is a graphic representation based on the two highest correlations for each paper. It can be seen, for example, that the provincial L'Indépendant was the only commercial newspaper whose two highest correlations included one with an organ of the Left, the also provincial Provençal. It can also be noted that the provincial papers generally tended toward more central positions than their respective press groups, and that the commercial press interlocks with the press of the Right, while the Left press forms a fairly tight group of its own.

The major cleavage was thus found to be between the perspectives of the Left and those of the commercial and Right press groups. The message systems produced in the French press differ from those of e.g. the English and American press systems in that they create and cultivate (rather than only represent through hostile sources) a radically left-wing mass reading public.

The analysis tends to support the proposition that there is no fundamentally non-ideological, a-political, non-partisan news gathering and reporting system. It also suggests that (at least under conditions of ideological plurality) the commercial press selects the broadest range of propositions concerning events to be made public, but weights its accounts and presents its news from a perspective countering that of the political Left, and close to that of the political Right.

This study did not indicate what ideological and political role the commercial press might play in a system which does not cultivate ideological plurality and sharp political differentiation on a mass scale. Of course, no national press system is totally isolated from the basic currents of thought abroad in the world. And there is little doubt that the commercial press everywhere reacts most sharply against perspectives which challenge the bases of its existence and support as an institution. But when the challenge is not represented by competing mass publications in the same press system, both the commercial press and the one-party press may be "freer" to ignore that perspective altogether, or to present it not only as a hostile but also as an "outside," foreign, alien view of the news.

Further indications of differential tendencies, but in different systems will be found in the next section. There we summarize the results of comparative studies of general relevant press coverage in eight countries.

Comparative analyses of press coverage

A general description of the procedures, samples, and findings of the comparative newspaper content analyses can be found in Appendixes II-C, II-D, and II-E. Here we shall only note that the material analyzed included all items for certain time periods containing reference to teachers, schools, or education in leading metropolitan or national daily newspapers in the United States, Great Britain, France, West Germany, East Germany, Poland, Czechoslovakia, and Hungary; and all relevant items from the Moscow edition of the Soviet government daily, Izvestia. Time periods differed, and no "representative" sampling was attempted. In analyzing the reporting of events, the researcher is dealing with complex historical situations which are in one sense always unique and irreversible (thus unrepeatable), and in another sense always "typical." Any sense of security derived from the mechanical application of natural or behavioral science sampling methods to historical and institutional data of this kind is likely to be illusory and misleading. Our intention was to obtain a substantial and continuous body of messages from each press system, dealing with a fair diversity of events talked about, and to derive from these some indications of message composition and structuring characteristic of stable systems in light of the events reported. (A more detailed discussion of these and other terms of the analyses can be found in Appendix I-10ff., and in the introductory section of the three Appendixes noted above.)

In the United States, a total of 1,336 relevant press items were found and analyzed in seven major metropolitan daily papers for the week of September 1-7, 1961. News, features, and other editorial items accounted for 46 percent of the total. Pre-season high school and college sports (appearing in the sports sections of the newspapers) accounted for 10 percent. Display advertising items (i.e. excluding classified ads) offering education or school-related products or services were nearly as numerous as the editorial items exclusive of sports; they comprised 44 percent of the total.

Sports and advertising items were excluded from the comparative analysis. Competitive school sports do not play the same role in European newspapers as they do in the U.S., and many of the papers we studied carried little or no advertising. However, the exclusion of advertising from the comparative study does not necessarily solve the problem of comparison between private advertising-supported and publicly supported newspapers. The chief clients and major subsidizers of every press system expect it to disseminate information and to cultivate perspectives they consider necessary or desirable. In countries where the business community is the chief client and major subsidizer of the press, the placing of advertising is a financial and contractual arrangement which assures the dissemination of such information and the cultivation of such perspectives. But in countries where civic organizations, public bodies, political parties, or local, state, and national governments act as the chief clients and major subsidizers of the press (as, for example, in the socialist countries), other arrangements exist for the carrying out of these functions. So we need to be aware of the possibility that certain types of information excluded from the analysis in countries which published it in the form of advertising, might be included in the analysis in other countries which publish it in the form of news, production or consumer features, or exhortations to use certain instructional facilities and services.

The comparative analysis was, then, limited to editorial items exclusive of sports. Items from all countries were analyzed by the same team of trained U.S. coders and translators. Appendix II-C-5, Table 3, provides information on the newspapers used and number of items included in the comparative analysis. (The French press was not included in the international comparative study, but was used in a case study of differential tendencies in multi-party news reporting, discussed previously.)

Of 609 editorial items in the U.S. sample, one-fourth came from the New York Times. In Great Britain, with 173 relevant items found, the popular conservative London Daily Mail headed the list with nearly 18 percent of the items, with the Manchester Guardian, the Times, Daily Telegraph, and Daily Sketch not far behind. In the West German sample (159 items), the conservative Hamburg Die Welt and West Berlin Tagesspiegel accounted for 21 and 18 percent, respectively, with the social democratic papers Hamburger Echo and Berlin Telegraph in second place. In East Germany the Berliner Zeitung provided one-fifth of the total of 165 items, the youth daily Junge Welt 18 percent, and the Communist party organ Neues Deutschland 14 percent. In Poland and Hungary the party organs and in Czechoslovakia the youth daily furnished the largest share of the small samples obtained from the press of those countries. In the U.S.S.R., all 69 items analyzed came from Izvestia.

A summary of the number of items by country and area, each country's share of area totals, and overall measures of critical tendency can be found in Appendix II-C-4, Table 2. Western European material was almost equally divided between British and West German items. More than half of the Eastern European items came from East German (East Berlin) newspapers, a quarter from Hungarian, and the rest from Czechoslovak and Polish papers.

The concept and method of critical tendency is discussed in Appendix I-11, and II-C-2 and 3. Briefly, it is a rating of directionality designed to indicate whether an item (or topic) appeared in a supportive or critical context. Figure 12 (based on data tabulated in Appendix II-C-4, Table 2) is a graphic representation of the overall mean ratings and standard deviations of critical tendencies of items (considered as wholes) for each country. Asterisks (*) represent the overall mean ratings; brackets ((())) indicate the standard deviations of ratings, with each bracket standing for 0.1 scale point variability.

FIGURE 12

MEAN RATINGS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF CRITICAL TENDENCY FOR ALL ITEMS

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                 0   0.5  1.0  1.5  2.0  2.5  3.0  3.5  4.0  4.5  5.0  5.5  6.0
                 :....:....:....:....:....:....:....:....:....:....:....:....:
United States    -------------------------------((((((((((((*))))))))))))
                                                         :
WESTERN EUROPE                                           :
                                                         :
Great Britain    ---------------------------(((((((((((*)))))))))))
West Germany     ------------------------------((((((((((((((((*))))))))))))))))
                                                         :
EASTERN EUROPE                                           :
                                                         :
East Germany     ----------------------------------(((((((((((((((((*)))))))))))))))))
Poland           -----------------------------------(((((((((((((*)))))))))))))
Czechoslovakia   ---------------------------------------------(((((((((*)))))))))
Hungary          ---------------------------------(((((((((*)))))))))
                                                         :
U.S.S.R.         ---------------((((((((((((((((((((*)))))))))))))))))))
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The center of the 7-point scale is 4.0; higher ratings indicate more support than criticism or a generally supporting tone, lower ratings more criticism than support or a generally critical tone.

It can be seen on Figure 12 that education in the American press was, on the whole, reported in a generally neutral or slightly supportive context, about average for both mean tendency and variability among the press systems studied. The most critical tone was struck in Izvestia (mean score of 3.4), where letters to the editor made up the bulk of the items, and criticism of bureaucracy, of examinations requiring rote learning, and of outmoded teaching methods was rampant. The only other sample on the slightly critical side of the scale was the British (mean rating 3.8) where a teacher strike was threatened during the study period. The most laudatory was the Czechoslovak press which had just announced free school books and supplies for all children. The greatest uniformity of tendency was exhibited in the Czechoslovak and Hungarian newspapers (standard deviation .9), while the greatest diversity was reflected in Izvestia (s.d. 1.9), East Germany (s.d. 1.7) and West Germany (s.d. 1.6).

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Next we shall look at the formal composition and tendency of these message systems. We shall discuss some gross dimensions of form such as types and sources of items, level and type of education discussed, and the bearing of these classifications on the critical tendency and variability of the items.

Then we shall deal with topical composition and structure. There we shift the focus from form and relevance to reference to specific subject matter: What topics and aspects of life compose the raw materials from which the message systems construct their representation of events? What is the underlying order, value, tendency, and structure involved in this construction?

Formal composition

The findings relating to gross dimensions of form such as the type of story, source (authorship), level of education involved -- and giving both mean ratings and standard deviations of critical tendency in each category, can be found in Appendix II-C-6 through 9, Tables 4 through 6. The following is a summary of these findings.

Type of story. Four categories of story "type" were used: (1) news, columns, articles; (2) photos, cartoons, comics; (3) editorials; and (4) letters to the editors. Four-fifths or more of all relevant items in all countries except the Soviet Union fell in the first category. The "forum" function of Izvestia was clearly reflected in the fact that 58 percent of its items of educational relevance were letters to the editor.

News and feature items tended to be most critical in Great Britain (3.9) and the U.S.S.R. (4.1) and most supportive in Czechoslovakia (5.3) and East Germany (5.2). Editorials were most frequently critical in the United States (3.8), and most supportive in Czechoslovakia (5.5).

Letters to the editor tended to be most critical in the U.S.S.R (mean rating of 2.9), West Germany and Hungary (3.0), the U.S. (3.2) and Great Britain (3.3), and most laudatory in Poland (7.0) and Czechoslovakia (6.3).

Level of education involved. The majority of items in most countries, and the largest single category of items in all countries except East Germany, referred to schools or teachers without involving one specific level or type of education. For example, this "general, more than one, or no specific level" category accounted for 57 percent of the items in the U.S., 58 percent in the Soviet Union. In East Germany, both higher and secondary education (with 38 and 31 percent, respectively) claimed a larger share of items than did the "general" category (28 percent).

The pattern of specific relevance to educational level favored higher education. Only the Czech press devoted more items to primary schools (14.3 percent of the sample) than to secondary or higher education (both 11.4 percent). In other countries (except Great Britain where attention was focused on the impending teacher strike) higher education was singled out for attention in at least one-fourth, and in some cases one-third or more of all items. Private schools (all levels) were the sole or primary subject of discussion in 18.4 percent of all items in the U.S., much less often in Western Europe, and, of course, not at all in the socialist countries.

Source of story. The unsigned and apparently staff-written item was the largest single source in all countries with the exception, again, of the Soviet Union. In Izvestia, contributors identified as teachers, professors, other pedagogical experts supplied one-fourth of the items, with unsigned stories accounting for only one-fifth.

Wire service stories played a significant part in the coverage of education in the U.S., West Germany, and East Germany, but not elsewhere. Staff writers' bylines were twice as frequent in U.S. papers as in Izvestia. On the other hand, educational officials and administrators, writing 17 percent of the items in Izvestia, represented negligible sources in other countries.

Education writers and other journalists who wrote under their own bylines tended to strike a more supportive note than did the writers of unsigned staff or wire service stories in all countries except the Soviet Union. Izvestia staffers identified by name were, on the whole, more critical (mean rating of 3.3) than those not so identified (3.8).

Educational officials, administrators, teachers, students, and parents were represented in significant numbers only in the Soviet sample. Statements by students and parents printed in Izvestia were, on the whole, the most critically oriented of any single group or type of statements in any country (mean rating of 1.5), and among the most uniformly critical (s.d. 0.5). Statements signed by persons identified as teachers, professors, pedagogical experts were next most critical by a wide margin (mean rating of 3.2); they were also much more varied in tendency (s.d. 1.6). Educational officials and administrators (often replying to criticism) tended to write in the least critical tone of all Izvestia contributors. Yet, with a mean rating of 4.1, the overall tendency of "official" statements can scarcely be called supportive. Wide variability of tendency (s.d. 2.2) also indicated a sharp division among educational administrators.

Topic analysis

Topic analysis is a procedure developed for this study to answer some questions about the composition and structure of references dealing with education, teachers, and students in the press samples of the different countries.

The basic unit of analysis was the reference to a topic in an item (regardless of form). A list of 230 possible topics (reproduced in Appendix VI-A, Form A, Section II) provided the "universe" of possible references against which every item was matched. Topics were also grouped into 34 larger subject areas, called topic groups. A reference had to be specific to a topic; no references to topic groups as such were recorded. The grouping of references into topic groups was done by adding all references to all topics included in the topic group.

One or more references in a single item to any topic on the list was considered a single reference. An item might refer to any number of topics. Indeed, one significant difference among press samples was in the diversity of references contained in items. The average number of references to different topics per item was 3.3 in the Hungarian sample which came from tabloid-size newspapers and contained the largest number of short items. At the other extreme were the generally long and discoursive items characteristic of Izvestia; the average number of references to different topics per item was 15.8. The range of differences in all other papers was relatively slight: from 6.6 in the Czechoslovak press to 7.5 in the American press. (See Appendix II-D-10, Table 1.)

Besides noting the existence of (one or more) references to each topic in every item, two special characteristics of each reference were recorded: (1) whether the reference occurred in the headline, lead, or as the main point of the item (one per item); and (2) whether either the tone or the event or statement (topic) of the reference was neutral (strictly factual, balanced, etc.), or of a critical, controversial, contentious nature, or of a supportive, non-controversial, non-contentious nature. Measures of composition and structure were based on the coding of these characteristics.

A. Measures of composition indicate the operation of selective processes in the overall make-up and tone of a message system. Four such measures were developed and will be used in this discussion. (1) A measure of the numbers and proportions of all references to different topics (and groups of topics) was considered indicative of the allocation of attention in the message system. (2) A measure of overall headline-and-lead or "main point" reference to topics and topic groups was called emphasis. (3) A combined index of these two measures (computed for topics only, not for topic groups) was called news value. (4) The mean directionality and variability of references (computed for both attention and emphasis) is topical critical tendency. Originally rated on a three-point scale, topical tendency was expressed in figures ranging from -10 (very critical, etc.) to +10 (very supportive, etc.), and variability was expressed as standard deviation in whole numbers, actually standing for 0.1 of a scale point.

B. A measure of structure was obtained by computing the correlation of references of any kind (attention) to topics of different topic groups in the same items, and recording the two highest correlations among topic groups.

A more detailed discussion of procedure and the findings of the analysis based on these measures can be found in Appendix II-D.

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The allocation of emphasis will be the primary consideration guiding the discussion of topical composition. Other measures will enter into the discussion if and when indicative of characteristics substantially different from those revealed by the distribution of emphasis. Rankings rather than absolute numbers or proportions will be used to order the sequence of the discussion, direct attention to the principal elements of allocation and selectivity, and enhance comparability across countries.

We shall begin by noting the topical composition of subject areas (topic groups) receiving highest priorities of emphasis in the American press sample, and major differences of overall emphasis allocation between the U.S. and other countries.

Next we shall summarize findings relating to critical tendency and to news values of individual topics in the U.S. sample, and to major cross-cultural news value differences. A discussion of U.S. topical structure will conclude the presentation of the analysis of the American sample in a comparative context. This will be followed by a brief glance at the outstanding characteristics of composition and structure in each of the other national press samples.

U.S. topic group composition

Tabulations giving all measures of topic group composition (including all topic emphasis, attention, and tendency figures), are among the tables of Appendix II-D, grouped by countries and areas. For example, U.S. topic group composition is the subject of Appendix II-D-11, Table 3.1. Comparisons of topic group emphasis ranks can be found in Appendix II-D-52, Table 13. The following discussion is based mostly on these tables, with occasional examples to indicate the nature or flavor of the material.

School system, organization, administration. Administrative, organizational, personnel, and legislative matters (but of different sorts) accounted for a large share of press emphasis and attention in all countries. In the U.S. sample, where this subject area ranked first in both emphasis and attention, publicity items of a local-service type such as enrollments and appointments and school board news dominated the discussion.

Educational policy, reform, or legislation of some sort was featured in about one out of every ten headlines dealing with administrative or organizational matters, and in one in a hundred headlines of the entire U.S. sample. The tendency of these items was fairly critical (mean rating = -4) and highly variable (s.d. = 8). These items included Congressional debate on "stop-gap school bills" designed to continue existing programs, post-mortem editorials on the defeated federal aid program, and school board reorganization in several large cities. "CLEANUP OF SCHOOL MESS UNDER WAY," "KEEP SCHOOL FUNDS INTACT," "WHOLE NEW TEAM NEEDED FOR SCHOOLS," "SCHOOL PLAN STIRS HEATED DISCUSSION" were some of the headlines. Educational "reform" tended to appear in a fiscal or legal context, often as part of a "clean-up crusade" with implications or allegations of corruption, graft, and power-play.

In the other countries, the general area of organizational and administrative discussion also ranked high in the proportion of emphasis and attention, but the topical composition and weighting of the subject area was different. In Great Britain, where the topic group as a whole ranked second in both emphasis and attention, and in West Germany, where it ranked third in attention and fourth in emphasis, discussion of educational reform and legislation was the major single component topic. Most of the British press coverage revolved around parliamentary and party debate concerning basic changes in the national educational system, and the determination of teachers' salary structure. West German newspapers also gave greater emphasis to proposals for structural and curriculum reform than to organizational and administrative publicity or financial controversy. So did the newspapers of Poland, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, and the U.S.S.R., except that while in the three Eastern European countries educational reform and legislation, being proposed or just implemented, was highly supported, in the Soviet Union the tendency of the discussion was even more highly critical than in the West.

School-community relations as an area of educational discussion ranked second in emphasis but eleventh in attention in the U.S. press sample. It was dominated by a single topic which usually received headline emphasis: school integration. During the study period white schools in Little Rock, Atlanta, Dallas, Galveston, Houston, and elsewhere received their first token contingent of Negro students without major incident, and obtained continued coverage of a generally supportive (+5) tendency.

In the other countries, discussion of school-community relations was, of course, composed of topics of a different nature, and played a different role in the total pattern. In Great Britain it was overshadowed by the strike issue. In West Germany it received insignificant emphasis but substantial attention, mostly devoted to the role and activities of religious and parent-teacher organisations. In Eastern Europe and the Soviet Union such topics as parent-teacher organizations, the role of parents in the learning of students and the role of the school in the building of a socialist system received extensive and highly supported emphasis and attention.

Vital statistics, personal and family topics, such as obituaries, birth notices, engagement, marriage and other society news compose an area of local service peculiar to the American press. Educators (and some students) were represented in such news frequently enough to make this group of topics rank third in emphasis and eighth in attention in the American sample.

Nowhere else did this group of topics receive much, if any, emphasis. The composition of attention devoted to it in other countries tended to favor parent-child relations involving schools, and family-life education topics, rather than personal and society notices.

Financial aspects of schools and education, a subject area already implicit in organizational and legislative news, was composed of such topics as government support, grants, scholarships, stipends, discussion of school taxes and costs. This group of topics attracted fourth place in emphasis and ninth in attention in the U.S. sample. Some prominent headlines indicative of the nature of primary emphasis were: "CONTINUED SCHOOL TAX RISE SEEN," "MORE TAX SOURCES NEEDED BY U.S. SCHOOLS," "SCHOOL TAX VOTE SET FOR TEACHER PAY," "BIG SCHOOL BILL DEAD," "CHANCE OF SCHOOL AID SEEN DIM NEXT YEAR," "SCHOOLS ASK RISE IN BUILDING FUNDS," "GRADUATE STUDENTS NOT POOR WHILE WORKING FOR DEGREES," and (based on the same report) "SURVEY FINDS SCIENCE STUDENTS HAVE THE BEST CHANCE FOR STIPENDS."

In Great Britain the financial aspects of education were noted in many stories; the subject area ranked seventh in attention. But headlines or stories devoted to school finance or costs as such were few. These dealt with gifts, government grants, and a local school committee recommendation such as that children whose parents cannot afford to pay for school dinners be charged 2d a day for eating their sandwiches at school. School finance as a subject area of press attention ranked even lower in West Germany and in the U.S.S.R., and received negligible emphasis in other countries except Czechoslovakia. There, on the other hand, it ranked first in both emphasis and attention. During the study period the government announced that school books, materials, and supplies were being distributed free of charge for the first time.

Other topic groups. Subject areas receiving less emphasis in the U.S. than in other countries included some topic groups of general significance. The topic group involving school facilities and resources, dealing mostly with buildings, classrooms, and the supply of teachers, sixth in emphasis in the U.S., was ranked second in Czechoslovakia (including much discussion of free books, materials, supplies, and equipment), and third in the U.S.S.R. (also including discussion of libraries, dormitories, and playgrounds). Teaching and teachers, a subject area involving a wide range of topics, received relatively little headline-and-lead emphasis in the U.S. (seventh in rank) compared to other countries especially Great Britain and Poland, where it ranked first.

Topic groups of high emphasis in Western Europe but not in the U.S. or elsewhere were labor problems (third in Great Britain), and science and technology (first in West Germany). High ranking topic groups in the socialist countries but not in others included specialized educational aims and functions such as adult, workers', rural education and on-the-job training (first in Hungary); problems of learning such as grades, examinations, conditions and difficulties of study (first in the U.S.S.R., third in Poland); international education (third in Poland); general discussion of student life (third in East Germany); topics related to health, physical and medical education (first in East Germany); and topics dealing with the aims, goals, and values of education (third in the U.S.S.R. and in Czechoslovakia).

U.S. Critical tendency

The greatest variability of tendency, indicating an overall context of controversy, was found in headline-and-lead references to the topics of educational reform, integration, government support, and the cost of schools. The most critically oriented emphasis was accorded to reform, legislation, government officials and agencies (mean ratings of -4). The most supportive emphasis was given to integration news (mean rating of +5), despite the wide variance of such references.

U.S. News values

Our analysis of the national samples included the development of a measure of news value given to references to topics. This measure, called news value index, is heavily weighted by the factor of emphasis (reference to topic in headline and lead of an item), but also permits a topic which receives a great amount of attention and little emphasis to obtain a relatively high score. On the whole, however, topics ranked high on news value are those which, when noted at all, are likely to be noted in the headline and lead of items. (See detailed discussion of news value index in Appendix II-D-4 and 5.)

The basic tabulations of the findings of the analysis of the national samples include tables of topical composition listing measures of news value, emphasis, and attention for each topic meeting specified criteria of inclusion. Such a tabulation of topical composition for the U.S. sample, for example, is presented in Appendix II-D-13, Table 3.2 A comparison of topic news value ranks by country and area is given in Appendix II-D-53 and 54, Table 14. The summary discussion which follows is based mostly on these two tabulations.

High ranking topics in U.S. The highest news value in the American press was given to school integration. Although references to integration ranked tenth in attention (contained in 13.5 percent of all items in the sample), they ranked first in emphasis (featured in one out of every ten relevant headlines), and received a news value score of 207.0, by far the highest of any single topic in the sample. It was also a topic unique to the American sample of press items. Another characteristic of the news values in the American sample was the high priority given to organizational, administrative, and personal local-service type topics, a feature already noted in the discussion of subject areas.

Only five of the topics ranked among the first ten in news value in the U.S. sample appeared on the list of the first ten in any other country. School opening, enrollments, buildings and classrooms were, of course, newsworthy topics where the study period coincided with the beginning of a school year. Obituaries, third in news value in the U.S. barely figured among the first ten even in Western Europe. Society notices, fifth in U.S. news value, were absent from all other lists.

High ranking topics in other countries but not in U.S. Educational reform, ranking among the first ten in all other countries, was twentieth in news value in the U.S. Although noted in 16 percent of all items, it received (usually critical) headline-and-lead emphasis in little more than one in a hundred. Legislative and governmental topics, international exchange and contacts, political activities of schools and teachers, awards given educators, and science topics related to education tended to receive higher news value priority in several other press samples than they did in the U.S.

U.S. Structure

A set of relationships indicating what elements of message systems were most likely to occur together was called structure. Our investigation of structure was limited to computing correlations of attention among topic groups, and tabulating the highest positive correlations of each topic group with two other topic groups. A detailed explanation of the procedure is given in Appendix II-D-5 and 6; the tabulations are included in the findings of the topic analysis for each national sample. Measures of attention and correlations by topic groups in the U.S., for example, can be found in Appendix II-D-14, Table 3.3

The analysis of structure was based on measures of attention alone. In other words, all references to all topics in a topic group were used in the computations whether these references occurred in headline and lead or only in the text of items.

Appendix II-D-15, Figure 1 is a graphic representation of these relationships in the U.S. sample. Circles stand for topic groups; titles are abbreviated. Solid lines mark the highest correlation and broken lines the second highest correlation meeting criteria for inclusion. The size of the circles is an approximate indication of the rank of attention of the topic group in the sample. (For a more detailed explanation see Appendix II-D-8 and 9.)

Three clusters of relationships were evident. Organizational and administrative topics (first in attention rank) relating to discussion of facilities and resources (third in rank) and to school finance (ninth in rank) dominated the allocation of attention. The second cluster, relating to administration at several points, revolved around "politics" (mostly legislative and governmental affairs, ranked second) and "school-community relations" (mostly integration news, ranked eleventh in attention). Violence and crime were most likely to be noted in this context. So were problems of foreign and minority group education, although the varied topics included in this group (such as exchange students and education of ethnic minorities, as well as description of education in other countries) make it appear misplaced in the cluster.

The third cluster formed around teaching and teachers (fourth in attention rank). Personal and family topics (vital statistics) was the highest ranking area of attention (eighth) related to teachers. Other topic groups related to teachers and teaching were science and technology; arts and humanities; religious education; health, medical, and physical education; student life; and discussion of educational aims and values.

Problems of learning, study, student progress (ranked seventeenth in attention out of a total of twenty topic groups meeting minimum criteria for tabulation) were most likely to be noted when aims and values (eighteenth in rank) were discussed, or when science and technology topics (ranked tenth) were noted. Science and technology topics in turn, correlated most highly (and mutually) with business and industrial news (sixth in attention rank), and with problems of teaching. Business, industry, production as a subject area was most closely related to educational administration.

The underlying structure of relationships in the U.S. sample differed from that in other countries (except Great Britain) chiefly in the minor and peripheral U.S. attention given to discussion of aims and values of education.

Next we shall take a brief glance at the highlights of the findings of topic analysis in the other national press samples.

Great Britain

The prospect of a nationwide teacher strike and discussion of educational reform proposals dominated the content of British press coverage. Topic groups and topics ranking high on all measures reflected the concentration of emphasis, attention, and news value in those areas.

Certain aspects of student life (mostly behavior and discipline problems) occupied a considerably greater share of emphasis and attention in the British than either in the U.S. or West German (but no greater than in the East German or Soviet) press.

The structure of topic group attention (Appendix II-D-23, Figure 2) shows teaching and teachers, the highest ranking group (it included most topics relating to the strike issue) in a central position. Major related areas of attention were labor (included in "business, production"), school resources, financial, organizational, and political topics. (The presence of "royalty, aristocracy" reflects the fact that analysts coded references to the Crown, as well as titles common in public life and the press, in that category.)

Of the cluster of minor subject areas relating to teaching and teachers, student life was most centrally located. The considerable attention directed to student life was composed of two major types of topics. One dealt with behavior and discipline problems treated in a rather sensational manner. Some prominent headlines: "DRINKING PARTIES END IN CHILDREN PAIRING OFF, SAYS HEAD"; "GIRL BAN ON SCHOOL BOYS"; "GATE-CRASH GIRLS REPRIMANDED"; "500 IN SCHOOL TEA BREAK 'STRIKE'; LEADERS CANED." The other type, also reflected in the related area dealing with education in other countries, described student life abroad, especially in the Soviet Union. A series on "Inside Russia's Schools" appeared during the study period. Headlines contrasted sharply with those on local "student life" stories: "GORKI ST . . . AND HARDLY A TEENAGER IN SIGHT"; "ALWAYS THEY'RE STUDYING . . . AND THE PRESSURE IF THEY SLACK IS RELENTLESS." Pictures showed youngsters intent on study, play, and even waxing their own school floors. One long story described life in Moscow Boarding School No. 23 where the basic foreign language taught was Urdu, the common language of India's Moslems. "Other countries" also included brief stories on education in the United States and in Italy.

Related subject areas involved topics on learning and teaching methods, personalities, and school-community relations conveying a wide and contrasting variety of turbulent images. Violence (both criminal and accidental) involved more teachers than students.

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As in the U.S., there was negligible discussion of basic educational aims and values, at least in a domestic context. But, unlike in the U.S., there was little or no routine local publicity. National issues in the limelight revolved around teachers' salaries, organisations, and educational reform, all hotly contested and colorfully reported. Sensational reporting was even more evident in the attention devoted to the more lurid and provocative aspects of student life in England, while education abroad appeared to be the subject of less voluminous but more searching attention.

West Germany

Topic analysis of Hamburg and West Berlin press samples showed science and technology, recognition and awards for scientific achievement, administrative topics (mostly educational reform and curriculum problems), and special (mostly political) events reflecting cold war pressures in a divided country dominating the allocation of emphasis.

Science, scientists, and technology ranked first in topic group emphasis (sixth in attention); this subject area ranked between fifth and twelfth in the socialist countries and seventeenth in the U.S. Religion in the schools was the only other subject area ranking higher (ninth) in the West German press than in any other.

Physical and natural sciences and awards to educators were the specific topics ranking first and second on measures of news value, the highest rank accorded those topics in all national samples studied. Political activities ranked third (also the highest); international contacts and references ranked fourth (highest along with Poland); literature ranked fifth (given measurable news value elsewhere only in the Soviet sample).

The emphasis on science and science educators came mostly from news of a series of prizes and awards. Dominant among them was the announcement of a Nobel prize awarded to a German professor of physics who had moved from Munich to the California Institute of Technology. Most newspapers discussed the resignation of a top University of Stuttgart rocket scientist because his work for the Egyptian government was felt to have violated the terms of his contract with the West German state. Other stories announced the defection of a prominent professor of chemistry from East Germany, carried the views of university professors on Soviet atomic tests, and described local and worldwide protest against the tests. Literary and artistic references, while relatively numerous, consisted mostly of short announcements and descriptions of cultural events usually involving universities and professors.

While science, and scientists, organizational reform, and political activities received most headline emphasis, reference to the aims and values of education occupied a central position in the structure of attention (Appendix

II-D-28, Figure 3). Yet, as the lack of emphasis indicates, and as the topic group structure corregram illustrates, the discussion of aims and values was diffused rather than concentrated. Minor and relatively independent clusters involved (1) financial and resource problems and (2) the topic groups of student life, juvenile violence and crime, and personal and family news.

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Taking all measures into account, the prominence of party politics in the discussion of educational reform, the prestige of science, the frequency of reference to other countries (including the "other Germany"), and the presence of the religious factor were the most distinctive features of the topical composition and structure of the discussion of education in the West German press.

East Germany

Subject areas of greatest emphasis in the East Berlin press sample were: (1) Health, medicine, physical education (opening of a new Institute for Sport Medicine at Karl Marx University, Party Congress statements on health and physical culture). (2) Special (mostly political and school opening) events and activities. (3) Teaching and teachers (prizes and awards to educators, including news of the Nobel prize to the West German scientist were leading in emphasis; political activities of teachers leading in attention). (4) Student life (sports, clubs, study). (5) Education in other countries. (6) Science and technology. (7) School-community relations. (8) Arts and humanities. (9) Administrative matters.

The East German press gave a higher priority of emphasis to the topic groups of health, medicine, physical education (ranked first) and of student life (ranked third) than did any other press system studied. Several specific topics ranked higher in news value in the East German sample than in any other. These were: international exchange and contacts; graphic arts; role of parents in the learning of students; public health and health education; service to community, mankind (as a goal of education); political activities of teachers; courts, law, constitution (mostly news of an international conference of jurists in East Berlin); and political activities of schools in general (including news of student activities in other countries).

The structure of topic group attention (Appendix II-D-36, Figure 4) was dominated by the high-frequency reference to aims and values of education. This related most closely to such other high-attention topic groups as teaching and science, school-community relations, politics and government, and education in other countries. This last group of topics frequently contrasted trends in West Germany -- and compared those in the Soviet Union -- with local developments.

A special characteristic of the East German press sample was the measurable presence of references to military topics, associating military affairs with learning and crime. These came primarily from news of illegal para-military training and activities of West Berlin students, and from letters to the editor from East German students pledging to serve in the volunteer

Volksarmee after passing the Abitur (baccalaureat).

Poland

Prime emphasis in the small Polish press sample was placed on topic groups dealing with teaching and teachers, and with school organization and administration. Most of these references came from staff-written features and reportage on the life, work, and problems of teachers, and on the planning and implementation of educational reform. The subject area of learning, study, and student progress, ranked third in topic group emphasis and received mostly critical notice.

Educational reform, political activities of teachers, prizes awarded educators, and international educational contacts were the individual topics ranking highest in news value in Poland. The first two topics ranked higher in news value in the Polish press than in any other.

The structure of topic group attention (Appendix II-D-39, Figure 5) shows a cluster of subject areas revolving around a major axis with the two highest-ranking topic groups, (1) teachers and (2) organization (reform) at opposite poles. Science and technology (ranked third in attention) and business, production (ranked fourth, involving primarily references to polytechnic education) were both related to school and community relations (including frequent reference to the goal of educational reform: to be "close to work and life"). This group was, in turn, discussed most frequently in the context of general references to the aims and values of education (ranked fifth in attention). The overall structure appeared highly integrated, probably due to the smallness of the sample and the relative length and complexity of many items.

Czechoslovakia

Announcement and discussion of material and financial benefits made available to students dominated the allocation of topic group emphasis, and determined the priorities of news value in the Czechoslovak press. The structure of topic group attention (Appendix II-D-42, Figure 6) shows this cluster of related items at the bottom of the corregram. Another cluster, relatively independent from the first, revolved around references to aims and values of education.

Hungary

Discussion of organizational reform stressing extension of educational opportunity and a variety of specialized aims and functions was the prime emphasis, and determined most of the news values in the Hungarian press. The structure of topic group attention (Appendix II-D-45, Figure 7) shows a complex set of relationships centering mostly in the high-ranking subject areas of organization (reform), specialized functions (extension, work experience, workers' education), aims and values of education (mostly to be "close to work and life"), school-community relations (role of society supporting schools), and matters of production (mostly polytechnic education).

Y

U.S.S.R.

The findings of the topic analysis of items from Izvestia do not fully reveal the striking differences between that newspaper's treatment of education and that of all others in this study. The items were not only lengthy, complex, discoursive, and largely written by outside contributors, but they were also most earnestly problem-oriented, most frequently critical, (although supportive of basic aims), often philosophical, anecdotal, dramatic (including dialogues), and even poetic.

The length and topical complexity of the items resulted in decreasing the numbers involved in measures of emphasis (i.e. there were relatively few headline or "main point" topics), and in increasing the number of references to topics, as well as in increasing the number of topics involved in measures of attention. The five highest ranking topic groups were the same both on measures of emphasis and attention. They were the subject areas dealing with (1) learning, study, student progress (mostly problems of grading, examinations, methods of study -- noted in 69.6 percent of all items); (2) aims and values of education (a wide range of topics); (3) teaching and teachers (relations with students, with the community, general duties, qualifications); (4) school facilities and resources; and (5) school organization and administration (primarily educational reform -- noted in 60.9 percent of items). Problems of learning and of the goals of education (first and third in topic group emphasis rank) were given higher priorities of emphasis in Izvestia than in any other national press sample.

Specific topics of highest news value were, in order of news value rank, (1) grades, examinations, student progress; (2) buildings, classrooms; (3) educational reform; (4) the role of society in supporting schools; (5) teachers' relations with students; (6) transmission of the historical and cultural heritage; (7) teachers' relations with the community; (8) language (mostly teaching of foreign languages); (9) other subject matter, "fundamentals"; and (10) scientific discovery. All but three of these topics ranked higher in news value in the U.S.S.R. than in any other country. The exceptions were buildings, classrooms (which also ranked second in Czechoslovakia, lower elsewhere); educational reform (first in Poland, second in Great Britain and Hungary, third in the U.S.S.R., lower in other countries); and teachers' relations with the community (seventh in Czechoslovakia as well as in the U.S.S.R., lower in other countries).

The structure of topic group attention (Appendix II-D-51, Figure 8) centered on the highest ranking subject area, aims and values of education. Eight other topic groups clustered around aims and values. The only areas ranking high (third) in attention but not in correlation to aims and values were those dealing with school resources and organization.

Some conclusions

Studies summarized in the previous chapters suggested certain ways in which institutional and client relationships help shape press representations of other institutions such as the educational enterprise. In this chapter we presented the findings of a number of content studies designed to probe further into the comparative dynamics of such representation. These analyses indicate how institutional relationships might be reflected and implemented in the actual allocation of press attention and emphasis in different countries. The limitations of time and sample size make it necessary to consider these findings suggestive, and the differences in the events and time periods involved make the findings only indirectly comparable. They should, therefore, be interpreted in the context of the overall patterns of evidence collected in this project rather than as definitive on their own.

National educational reform was a major area of press discussion in all countries studied except the U.S. Discussion of reform in the American press tended to appear in a fiscal or legal context usually conveying contention, stalemate, or failure.

The local market area functions of American papers were reflected in the high incidence of personal service news related to education, such as vital statistics, and society notices, and in the paucity of discussion related to the general aims and values of education. The topic of school desegregation ranked highest in news value in the U.S. sample. The cluster of topic group correlations was dominated by organizational news, related to resources and finance; politics and school community relations (mostly integration) related to crime and violence as well as to school administration.

An independently conducted case study and the comparative analysis of British press content both showed teachers' problems, needs, demands and organizations gain the lion's share of attention and emphasis. A wide range of government and teachers' union activities (including a planned teachers' strike) dominated the national coverage. Some ideological differentiation was apparent in the general coverage, and in a political crisis situation some papers reversed editorial policy to conform to the "party line."

The case study of the coverage of a criminal event implicating a teacher in the French press further explored the effects of political and ideological differentiation upon news reporting. The analysis supported the proposition that there is no fundamentally a-political or non-ideological system of news reporting. Under conditions of ideological plurality, the commercial press appeals to the broadest range of publics but weights its accounts and presents its news from a perspective close to that of the political Right and countering that of the political Left. The strongest editorial support for political solution to problems of educational (and other public) resource allocation comes, of course, from the Left.

Both Western and Eastern European papers gave educational reform and aims and values of education a great deal of attention and central position in the interrelationship of subject areas. Izvestia was unique in opening up the widest range of topics to critical public discussion and in enlisting the broadest participation of educators and readers in its education coverage. Subjects of highest priority in the Soviet government paper were problems of learning, study, and examinations; aims and values of education; teachers and their relations with students and community; and educational reform and resources.

CHAPTER VI

EDUCATION IN MASS MEDIA FICTION AND DRAMA: COMPARATIVE STUDIES

> The figure of the schoolteacher may well be taken as a central symbol in any modern society. . . . The teacher is not merely an instructor but a potential personal model for his (or her) pupils and a living clue to the attitudes that prevail in the adult world. . . .
>
> Richard Hofstadter in Anti-Intellectualism in American Life, p. 309.

Mass-produced fiction and drama offer special opportunities for cultural analysis. Fiction deals with people in action rather than with fragments of "fact" or "knowledge." The kind of people, the types of action, the circumstances and the outcomes depicted inevitably reflect assumptions, contexts, points of view -- the "emphases and omissions" discussed in the introduction to Chapter I -- whose cultivation accounts for a large share of the total cultural process investigated in this research.

This chapter presents some quantitative aspects of the fictional and dramatic "worlds" of education in the mass media of the U.S. and of the Western and Eastern European countries studied. Soviet film analysis data were not included in Eastern Europe area totals but will be noted in some of the findings.

After a brief general discussion of the studies we shall summarize the findings in two parts. The first deals with analyses of context and with the portrayal of educational enterprise itself. The second part presents aspects of the characterizations of teachers and other people in the stories.

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The rationale for the analysis of fictional and dramatic message systems is developed in Appendix I, pp. I-9, ff. The comparative studies of mass media fiction and drama are introduced in detail in Appendix III, pp. III-1 to III-7. The studies are described and their quantitative findings are presented in Appendixes III, IV, and V. The data collected and reported in the Appendixes far transcend the immediate objectives of this report, and have been included primarily to make them available for inspection and further exploration.

Institutional analyses, case studies, and interviews were conducted in film, broadcast, and magazine production in the countries included in the project. As in the press studies, the purpose of these informal investigations and observations was to shed some light on the interplay of personal, social and institutional forces which give the flow of mass communications their distinctive characteristics in different cultures and different media.

The institutional relationships of the magazine industry follow closely those of the press except that, in the U.S. they are national in scope and more diversified. The bulk of relevant U.S. magazine fiction came from women's and general consumer magazines such as the Saturday Evening Post. Most magazine fiction involving teachers, students, and education in other countries was found in popular women's fiction magazines. Most of these magazines cater to lower income readers. Their inclusion in the study undoubtedly had an effect on the social class structure of the fictional representations.

The major client relationships of the motion picture industry in the West are with domestic and international financing organizations. In Eastern Europe and the Soviet Union they are with state economic planners, public organizations, Ministries of Culture. Commercial, political, and organizational pressures and the threat or reality of government censorship forced all movie industries to "internalize" their most vital requirements in the form of "self regulation." Formal or informal codes either supplant or supplement outside censorship in the West. In Eastern Europe, Artistic Councils composed of delegates from movie studios and other public organizations (including teachers' unions) exercise supervisory functions over production and planning.

The broadcasting industry operates under the most sensitive and intricate constraints of all mass media. In Great Britain public corporate standing provides relative insulation from both direct client involvement and direct government control. In the countries of Eastern Europe, the close integration of broadcasting with the public organizational life and the increasing effort to involve large numbers of the audience in programming make radio and television perform functions similar to those described in our discussion of the Soviet press.

The details of these institutional investigations remain to be reported elsewhere; they add little to a theory of message-production and image-cultivation relevant to popular conceptions of education beyond what has already been suggested in connection with the press studies.

The remainder of this chapter is, therefore, devoted to the analyses of fictional and dramatic media content.

*

The procedure employed in screening media content and selecting relevant units of fiction and drama (also referred to as "stories"), and the nature of the sample in each country are described in Appendix III. The number of stories and the proportion of the different media included in the national samples varied, depending on resources, availability of materials, and the frequency of relevant stories produced by the different sources. The intention was to gather substantial numbers of continuously produced and non-selectively collected relevant stories from whatever mass media source tended to produce them. The basic purpose was to sample the production of relevant stories introduced into national cultures regardless of any process of selective exposure and differential perception involved in the use of these stories by different groups or publics. (The theoretical assumptions and implications of this approach are discussed in Appendix I, pp. I-6, ff.) Appendix III, pp. III-5 and 6 list the number of stories and characters analyzed by media and country; subsequent tabulations give complete details on other characteristics of the samples.

The grand total of 1,406 stories and 2,800 fictional and dramatic characters selected by criteria explained in Appendix III-1 and III-2, and subjected to analysis described in Appendixes III and VI, were distributed as follows:

	Media Stories	Characters
United States	358	1,041
Great Britain	220	628
West Germany (incl. Austria)	168	406
France	46	128
Western Europe total	434	1,161
Poland	78	217
Czechoslovakia	117	241
Hungary	44	96
Eastern Europe total	239	554
Soviet Union (films only)	15	44

The 15 relevant Soviet films available for analysis were not included in the Eastern Europe area totals. They were also deemed insufficient to warrant separate presentation, except in a few instances where the number of observations appeared to be sufficient for at least suggestive results.

The fictional "world" of education is not all focused on education per se. It includes, of course, stories specifically about schools, teachers, or students. But it also includes many other stories which involve education, teachers, or students as significant but secondary elements. (These terms and criteria are defined in Appendix III-1 and 2.) It should be kept in mind that the inquiry was into the dynamics of message-production and image-cultivation in diferent cultural systems, and not into the perceptions and uses of images by specific individuals or groups. It was immaterial, therefore, whether the relevant elements were at the center of the stage or secondary to other aspects of life, or even only part of the background, as long as they were of sufficient importance not to be overlooked e.g. in a summary or brief review, and were sufficiently delineated to make analysis possible. For our purposes, then, secondary themes, stereotyped dramatic devices, or stock characters established in broad and familiar strokes for purposes of instant recognition were as significant indications of assumptions underlying processes of message-production as fully developed themes, main plot lines, or three-dimensional characters.

This approach made our media samples share many characteristics of the general fictional and dramatic output from which they came. For example, we found a high rank correlation of thematic structure (explained below) between U.S. films which did and which did not involve teachers, students, and schools, during a 10-year time period. (See Appendix IV-B-6, Table 3, comparison A.) On the other hand, we also found that films involving these elements were about twice as likely to be comedies or science fiction films and much less likely to be crime or western adventure films than those not portraying such elements. (Appendix III-A-1, Table 2.)

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Thematic context, time, place, and the educational enterprise

Generalized themes and aspects of life portrayed in drama and fiction provide one form of implicit organization of the imaginary universe. Such themes and aspects of life may be seen as units of a basic thematic "language" in which message systems are composed and structured.

This section will first summarize the findings of thematic composition and structure. A brief description of the physical and educational setting of the stories will then complete the background against which the media's "world" of education will be seen.

Thematic composition and structure

Any attempt to classify the "raw materials" of creative imagery may seem crude and arbitrary. But such classification can at least serve as a comparative device for assessing similarities and differences in the incidence of common elements in different message systems.

Our analysis of thematic composition and structure, described in detail in Appendix IV-B, began with a simple checklist-type count of the significant occurrence of one or more out of a list of 21 common themes. Measures of attention (frequency of occurrence) and of emphasis (mean importance of occurrence) were computed, and an index of story value obtained from the product of the two measures. An indication of thematic structure was derived from theme story value rank order correlations.

Structure. The system of priorities governing the selection of thematic "raw materials" in U.S. media stories resembled most closely the overall thematic structure of the "world" of education in Great Britain (story value rank correlation .91) and less closely those of West Germany, and Poland (.80 and .82, respectively). Rank correlation between the U.S. and France was .65, and between the U.S. and Hungary or Czechoslovakia was even lower. Appendix IV-B-13, Figure 1 illustrates some of these correlations.

The overall thematic structure of the Hungarian and Czechoslovakian media samples was relatively unique and different from all others, as was that of France. Theme story value rank order correlation between the U.S. and Western Europe as a whole was .92, between the U.S. and Eastern Europe .70. The correlation between Western Europe and Eastern Europe was .73.

Composition. The overall structure of rank-order priorities does not indicate specific shifts in frequency or importance of individual themes. Appendix IV-B includes the specific thematic composition of media samples in all countries.

Universal themes of drama and fiction -- "home, family, marriage," and "love and sex," -- ranked highest in story value in all countries. The theme of "entertainment, sports, mass media" ranked third in U.S. media, and among the first five in all countries except France (rank 9.5) and Hungary (rank 17).

The theme of "violence and war," fourth in the U.S., ranked among the first seven in all countries except Czechoslovakia (rank 13).

"Financial success or hardship" was the fifth ranking theme in the U.S. It ranked about the same in Western Europe but 14th in Eastern Europe. "Public affairs, law enforcement" ranked sixth in the U.S., and among the first ten in all countries except West Germany (rank 12.5). "Injury, illness, medicine" ranked seventh in the U.S., eighth in Western Europe and 13th in the Eastern Europe area total.

"Literature, arts and humanities," "crime and corruption" and "science and technology" complete the list of U.S. theme story values ranking among the first ten. Arts ranked generally higher in Western Europe, science ranked generally higher in Eastern Europe, and crime ranked about the same in the other area totals as in the U.S.

The subjects ranking lowest (21st) in the U.S., and among the lowest in Western Europe, were "historical events and themes." In Eastern Europe historical themes were given greater value; they ranked sixth in Hungary, ninth in Czechoslovakia, and 12th in Poland.

Turning to an examination of the greatest theme story value rank differences across areas, we can infer from the high rank correlation between the U.S. and Western Europe that there were few major shifts in story value ranks between the two area totals. (This does not necessarily hold for individual countries.)

East-West rank differences involved much larger shifts. "Historical events and themes" ranked 11.5 in the Eastern European "world" of education and last (21st) in the U.S., a difference of 9.5 ranks. Other themes ranking higher in Eastern Europe than in the U.S. by more than five ranks were "domestic activities"; "nature, animals, and the elements" (including agriculture); and "business, industry, labor" (production) themes. Themes ranking lower in Eastern Europe than in the U.S. by more than five ranks were those of "financial success or hardship"; "other lands and people"; and "personal injury or illness."

Rank order differences between Eastern and Western Europe were similar to those between Eastern Europe and the U.S. except for science and technology. Science themes, (which ranked 9.5 in the U.S. media "world" of education) ranked sixth in Eastern Europe and 13th in Western Europe as a whole, an area difference of seven ranks.

Physical setting

Time of action. As might be inferred from the differences in the incidence of historical themes discussed above, there were also sizable differences in the time of action depicted in the stories. The U.S. media "world" was the most "present-oriented." Only 22 percent of all stories took place solely in the past, 2 percent at various times, and 76 percent in the "present" (defined as presumably contemporaneous with original production or publication). The "present" was the time of the major action in 72 percent of French, 67 percent of British, and 52 percent of West German stories. The percentages of "present-oriented" stories in Eastern Europe ranged from 66 percent in Czechoslovakia to 36 percent in Hungary. Conversely, stories set partly or solely in the past were most frequent in Eastern Europe, accounting for the relatively high priority given to historical themes in Eastern European media. (See Appendix IV-A-1, Table 1.)

U.S. stories dealing with the past were likely to delve into the more distant past than were stories of other countries. Nearly half (46 percent) of U.S. stories set partly or wholly in the past took place before 1900; 35 percent between 1900 and 1939; 13 percent in the World War II period; and 6 percent in the late forties or early fifties. In the last group of stories the anti-communism of the postwar period was the major "historical" theme.

The more distant period (before 1900) was the setting of only 26 percent of Western European and 22 percent of Eastern European stories set in the past. More than half of these stories in Western Europe, but only one-third in Eastern Europe, played in the pre-World War II (1900-1939) period. The major historical themes of this period in the Western European media "worlds" of education were World War I (4 percent), the Spanish civil war (2 percent) and the rise of fascism (6 percent), none of which appeared in U.S. stories. (On the other hand, the depression of the thirties furnished the background for 5 percent of U.S. media stories but none of the others.) In Eastern Europe the Russian revolution was the theme in 5 percent, and the rise of fascism in 8 percent of the "historical" stories.

The "past" in the stories of Eastern Europe was more frequent but also less distant than in the stories of the other countries. The World War II period, represented in 13 percent of U.S. stories, was the setting of 15 percent of stories in Western European and 19 percent of Eastern European media. The late forties and early fifties furnished the background for 6 percent of American and 7 percent of Western European, but 27 percent of Eastern European stories. The themes of liberation from fascism and postwar reconstruction were prominent in 3 percent of the stories of Western and 16 percent of Eastern Europe. (See Appendix IV-A-1, Table 2.)

Place of action. The smaller the country, it seems, the more likely that the story takes place in a metropolitan setting, probably the capital city. Such settings were the scene of major action in 42 percent of Hungarian, 40 percent of Czechoslovak, and 37 percent of Polish and British stories, but only 24 percent of U.S. media stories and 13 percent of Soviet films.

The socio-economic class character of the setting of major action (as of the actors themselves) is usually fairly clearly delineated in fiction and drama. But the meaning of class may be confounded by the variables of place and time and of the usage of the term in East and West. The Marxist definition of social class is specific to a system of production; it defines the legal or contractual position of groups of people in relation to the ownership of means of production. However, great differences in types of neighborhoods, housing, living standards, income, power, prestige, and type of work exist in all countries. It was agreed to use these latter differences as indeces of "class" status in the fictional and dramatic "worlds" of education in all countries.

The physical settings in which the major action of the stories took place were mostly "middle class" -- a relatively indistinct category -- in all four area totals (U.S., Western Europe, Eastern Europe, U.S.S.R.). "Upper class" settings -- places of luxury, seats of power -- were most frequent in West Germany (15 percent of all stories), Great Britain (11 percent) and the U.S. (10 percent), and generally more frequent in the West than in the East. In Eastern Europe, where on the whole only 3 percent of settings were "upper class," the countries with the highest proportion of historical themes also portrayed seats of abundance, luxury, power most frequently.

"Lower class" settings -- depicting places of poverty, hardship, low-income manual labor -- were selected as scenes of major action less frequently than "upper class" settings in the U.S., Great Britain, and West Germany. "Lower class" settings were portrayed more frequently than "upper class" settings in France and in all the socialist countries.

While "middle class" settings predominated everywhere regardless of educational level involved in the stories, "lower class" settings were generally more likely to be associated with primary schools than with other levels of education. Stories portraying private schools and education in the U.S. and in Western Europe were about twice as likely to involve "upper class" settings as were all the stories. (See Appendix IV-A-3, Tables 5-7.)

The educational enterprise

U.S. media stories were twice as likely to be associated with either secondary or college education, teachers, or students than with education on the primary level. The proportions were similar in Western Europe as a whole. However, West German and French stories had a higher percentage of secondary level associations, and French media stories involved the primary level more than twice as frequently as U.S., British, West German, or Polish media.

Higher education predominated in Polish media stories; primary education in those of Czechoslovakia and Hungary. In Eastern Europe as a whole, the three levels were fairly equally divided. More than half of the 15 Soviet films analyzed involved education on the secondary school level and one-third on the primary level. (See Appendix III-A-5 and 6, Tables 6 and 7.)

Goals of education. Education in American mass media was found to have three primary purposes, each accounting for about one out of every five educational goals portrayed in the stories. These were (1) social advancement (to "make good" in life); (2) learning the subject matter "fundamentals"; and (3) character building (the inculcation of ideals, values, moral qualities). (Appendix V-A-1, Table 1.)

In the popular fiction and drama of most of the other countries studied, subject matter learning or vocational and professional training played a more important role than in the U.S. Social advancement, on the other hand, played a less important role in Western Europe and was almost negligible as a purpose of education in the media of Eastern Europe, while ideals, values, and moral qualities comprised the largest share of educational goals in Poland and France.

The "world" of education in British media stressed professional and vocational goals most frequently, and more frequently than did the media of any other country studied. In West Germany the learning of subject matter "fundamentals" was stated or shown to be the main goal of education more frequently than any other goal or in any other country. French media showed ideals and values in first place and transmission of the historical and cultural heritage in second place, with the latter's share of goals highest of all countries studied. Ideals, values, and moral qualities were most frequently portrayed as main goals of education in Polish media, with France second. Czechoslovak media stories stressed learning the "fundamentals," the acquisition of ideals, values, moral qualities, and the development of citizenship and democracy as the primary aims of education; their frequency of the goals of citizenship and democracy was the highest of all countries studied. Hungarian media were second to the German in stressing the subject matter "fundamentals" as educational objectives, and second to the British in showing the goals of vocational and professional skills and competence.

Being of direct service to community and nation ranked third in France, followed by Poland and Czechoslovakia in percentage share of all educational goals. Exploration and discovery of new knowledge did not rate high anywhere as a goal of education.

Aspects of school program. Analysts judged school programs "well organized" in 17 percent of U.S. and 20 percent of Eastern European, but only 8 percent of Western European media stories. The percentage of stories which indicated that the school program related to "real life" and was "of immediate use and benefit," and which suggested that "democracy can be successfully practiced in the classroom" (Appendix V-A-5, Table 6), is shown below by area:

	United States %	Western Europe %	Eastern Europe %
School is related to real life	14	8	28
School is of little use in solving real-life problems	12	16	16
Learning is of immediate benefit	14	10	23
Democracy can be successfully practiced in the classroom	6	5	15

Teachers were depicted as having a voice in decisions which affected them in 16 percent of stories in Eastern European media but only 9 percent of U.S. and 7 percent of Western European media (Appendix V-B-12, Table 18).

Citizen participation in school affairs was indicated in 13 percent of both U.S. and Eastern European stories, but only in 6 percent of the stories of Western Europe. Something about the nature of the participation can be learned from the observations that in 6 percent of U.S. stories citizens were portrayed as having "much to say about how schools should be run," and in the same percentage of stories they were seen coming to school to "complain." The corresponding percentages in Western Europe were 4 and 2, and in Eastern Europe 9 and 3. (Appendix V-B-14, Table 21.)

When classroom activity was depicted in the stories, it was most likely to be a lecture, demonstration or discussion led by the teacher. Scenes in which students dominated the classroom activity occurred with considerable frequency (9 percent of all such activities portrayed) only in U.S. media. Examinations and tests occupied a much greater share of portrayals of classroom activities in Eastern Europe than anywhere else; this was true especially on the college level (Appendix V-B-3, Tables 3 and 4).

The class was usually portrayed under control and attentive, even if at times "noisy and lively." Disinterest, boredom, rebelliousness characterized 43 percent of all classroom situations portrayed in British and 37 percent in Polish media, but only 24 percent in French, 14 percent in West German, and 12 percent in U.S. media. One out of every five classrooms shown in British and Polish media stories appeared to be "out of control" for a time. The proportion of classroom anarchy in Western Europe as a whole was 11 percent of all observations of different types of the "most prominent classroom atmosphere." The corresponding figure in Eastern European media stories was 9 percent, and in U.S. media stories 6 percent. But, while in the U.S. and in Western Europe high school students were most likely to be "out of control," open rebellion in Eastern European classrooms was most likely to occur at a university (Appendix V-B-4, Tables 5 and 6).

Subject matter. When students were shown studying or teachers teaching a specific subject, the subject was most likely to be in the area of the humanities. In U.S. media, physical and natural sciences came second and social sciences third. In Europe generally professional studies ranked higher than in the U.S., and in Western Europe they ranked higher than did the sciences. In France, however, mathematics was second in frequency (after the humanities), and was portrayed more frequently than in any other country except Hungary. Physical and natural sciences generally claimed more frequent attention in Eastern Europe than in Western Europe, as did technology, agriculture, and physical education. (See Appendix V-A-3, Table 4.)

While all leading subject matter areas were more likely to be portrayed as taught (i.e. as associated with what teachers did in the stories), mathematics and professional subjects were more likely to be shown as studied (i.e. associated with what students did. See Appendix V-A-4, Table 5).

Most teachers were portrayed as stressing the mastering of subject matter and of correct language, and the importance of obedience and discipline, more than other traits and activities. Only in the U.S., Great Britain, and France was the solution of personal problems given substantial (18 percent or more) emphasis by mass media teachers. In West Germany teachers stressed obedience most of all. In Eastern Europe, subject matter, discipline, and being of service to community and nation were about equally stressed. (Appendix V-B-9 and 10, Tables 14 and 15.)

Student life. About one-third of U.S. media stories tended, on the whole, to affirm the proposition that "students have a lot of fun at school." Secondary and higher education appeared to be the most "fun." In Western Europe only one in five stories showed students having "fun" at school. The overall proportion was about the same in Eastern Europe, but mostly on the primary school level; higher education was the least "fun." (Appendix V-B-6, Table 9.)

Learning, striving for "acceptance, recognition, belonging," and finding romance and adventure were among the highest ranking aspirations of students in all countries studied. The U.S. led other countries in showing students striving for "acceptance, etc." Romance as a student goal was most frequently portrayed in the media stories of Western Europe. Eastern European media showed students striving for adventure more frequently than did media of other areas. (Appendix V-B-5, Table 7.)

Female students generally appeared to have "good relations with teachers" more frequently than did male students, and students of both sexes in the U.S. and in Eastern Europe more frequently than students in Western Europe. Similar patterns were found in teachers' enjoyment of children, students' enjoyment of each other, and students helping other students outside of class:

	United States			Western Europe			Eastern Europe		
	Tot.	Males	Fem.	Tot.	Males	Fem.	Tot.	Males	Fem.
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Has good relations with teachers (% of students)	32	31	34	22	17	29	38	33	50
Seems to enjoy children, students									
Percent of teachers	58	54	66	54	47	72	65	60	76
Percent of students	43	41	46	18	14	23	50	52	44
Helps other students outside of class									
Percent of students	12	11	13	5	3	7	30	32	25

Success and failure. Media stories depicting either success or failure of school programs showed 60 percent of such programs as generally successful in the U.S., 47 percent in Western Europe and 68 percent in Eastern Europe. (Appendix V-A-7, Table 9.)

The credit for the success of the school program generally went to teachers, while the blame for its failure usually fell on the shoulders of students. But there were exceptions to this pattern.

Of all instances of portrayal of successful school programs in U.S. media, the "personality of the teacher" was given as the main reason for success in 46 percent, and the "personality of the student" in 38 percent (with the rest attributed to other causes). In Czechoslovak mass media, however, the scales were reversed; students were responsible for 67 percent of educational successes, and teachers for only 32 percent.

When it came to the depiction of educational failure, U.S. media teachers were held responsible for only 22 percent of such instances, students for 41 percent. A radically different distribution of blame (though not of credit) was evident in France: teachers appeared to "cause" the failure of 57 percent of educational attempts that failed, students only 13 percent. In Poland and Hungary the responsibility for failure was equally divided between teachers and students, while in Czechoslovakia, where students got most of the credit for success, they were also assigned most of the blame for failure.

Lack of discipline and lack of ability or preparation of students were shown to be major overall problems of education in all countries except in France (where educators' incompetence and conflicts led the list of problems) and in Hungary (where the lack of resources was shown to be the major problem). (Appendix V-A-6, Tables 7 and 8.)

Teachers and other people

All media stories were chosen for analysis because they involved teachers, students, or schools in a significant way. The portrayal of a person clearly identified as a teacher, professor, educational administrator was sufficient to make the story relevant to the study regardless of whether the educator was shown in a professional or other capacity. The portrayal of a student, however, was sufficient only if the student was depicted in school or as otherwise engaged in school-connected-activities.

Detailed criteria for the selection of characters for analysis can be found in Appendix III-3. The number of characters analyzed in all countries is tabulated by role and sex, media, and educational level in Appendix III-B-1, Table 1. All results present the analysis of characters in three groups: teachers, students, and "others." "Others" were parents, relatives, friends of students or teachers, other professionals or officials, etc., playing important roles in the stories but neither as teachers nor as students.

Teacher and student were brought together in the same stories in seven out of ten U.S. media stories. The rest were about equally divided between stories depicting teachers but not students and stories depicting students but not teachers. Portrayal of teacher without student was twice as frequent in British as in U.S. media stories, while Polish and Czech media stories depicted student life without teacher most frequently. (See Appendix III-A-3, Table 4 for tabulation by countries and media.)

In the U.S., with 18 percent of all stories involving education on the primary level, 18 percent of all teachers but only 11 percent of all students analyzed were associated with primary schools. Secondary schools were involved in 40 percent of all stories; secondary school teachers comprised 37 percent of all teachers analyzed. Secondary school students, however, accounted for 51 percent of all students included in the analysis. The respective percentages for higher education were 39, 39, and 36 percent. While the percentages varied, and the proportion of students on the primary level was considerably higher in France and in Eastern Europe, the general pattern was similar in other countries. (Appendix III-A-5 and 6, Tables 6 and 7, and Appendix III-B-4, Table 5.)

The sex distribution of teachers on various levels of education can be viewed in two different ways. If we look at the distribution by level (Appendix III-B-3, Table 4), we find that on the primary school level female teachers outnumbered male teachers about 7 to 3 in U.S. media and about 6 to 4 in British and Hungarian media. But in the media stories of the other countries, males dominated teaching on all levels. The proportion of female high school teachers (34 percent), and of female college professors (16 percent) was higher in the U.S. than the corresponding percentages of woman teachers on the same educational levels in the media of other countries.

If we look at sex distribution by role, (Appendix III-B-4, Table 5), we find that although U.S. media women teachers outnumbered men on the primary school level and generally appeared in greater proportions on the other levels than did women teachers of other media systems, the other systems generally relegated a larger proportion of all women teachers to the lower educational levels than did U.S. media. In other words, while more than seven out of ten U.S. media primary school teachers were women, less than four out of ten U.S. media women teachers taught primary school. But in Eastern Europe as a whole, where only little more than two out of ten primary school teachers were women, more than seven out of ten women teachers taught primary school. And the proportion of women professors was negligible in all but West German media where it was but half the percentage of college professors out of all women teachers depicted in U.S. media.

*

We shall turn next to some findings of the analyses of personality factors and traits. After a brief description of the "personality differential" measure, mean ratings will be summarized and illustrated by countries and across countries. Discussion of some further demographic, social, and professional features of our samples of fictional characters will complete the chapter.

The "personality differential"

A multi-dimensional measure of differential tendency was developed and applied to the judgment of all fictional and dramatic characters analyzed in this study. Appendix IV-C gives an account of the measure, and presents all findings.

Briefly, analysts rated every character on a number of 7-point scales defined by contrasting personality adjectives (see Form C Answer Sheet, Appendix VI-B). Factor analysis of these personality ratings of all characters established five principal dimensions (factors) of judgment applied to the rating of fictional and dramatic personalities. In order of percentage of variance, these factors were named: (1) "congeniality," composed of the traits of "sociability," "attractiveness," and "kindness"; (2) "vitality" or "liveliness" composed of "freeness" (i.e. lack of restraint), "boldness," and "sharpness" (vs. being "dull"); (3) "morality," including also "cleanness," and "honesty"; (4) "stability," also associated with "calmness" and "efficiency" (vs. being easily excitable and "bungling"); and (5) "manliness," a sex-linked cluster of traits composed of "tallness," "toughness," and "masculinity."

In addition to these factors, mean ratings on a number of relatively independent single traits were also tabulated and will be discussed.

Finally, country and area "norms" were established by averaging mean ratings for each role (teachers, students, "others") on all factors and scales. This permitted the calculation of deviations of role means from country and area "norms."

A detailed discussion of the findings is, of course, beyond the scope of this report. We shall summarize a few highlights and present a series of Figures designed to facilitate visual inspection of the means and variability of ratings. The Figures are based on the tabulations of Appendix IV-C.

A brief country-by-country summary of the personality profiles of teachers, and outstanding differences among groups of characters, will precede the series of Figures. The first Figure for each country illustrates the means and variability of teachers' character traits. The second Figure represents the highest ranking differences between teachers, students, and others. Both factors and the relatively independent individual scales (traits) are included in these Figures.

Following the series of Figures by country, the factor data will be presented across countries and areas, including graphic indication of role deviations from each country's and area's "norm" on each factor. A summary discussion of the highlights will precede these Figures also, and will relate pertinent findings from other studies included in this research.

Comparative results derived from the individual scales (traits) and thus not summarized in the factor data will be included in the subsequent discussion on demographic and social characteristics.

Personality ratings by country

Teachers in the media of all countries studied were judged to have "morality" their top-ranking personality factor. Clustered around this major dimension of judgment were three individual traits: teachers were also "purposeful," "learned," and "good." The order and variability of these characteristics, and their relationships to other traits, varied from country to country.

United States. Mean ratings are graphically represented on Figure 13, along with the variability (standard deviation) of ratings. The most pronounced characteristics of U.S. media teachers, as those of other countries, were their "purposefulness," "morality," "learnedness," and "goodness." Women generally, and women teachers in particular, appeared to possess these (and most other) characteristics more sharply and more uniformly than did the males. Aside from such sex-linked qualities as "strength" and "manliness," women teachers rated lower than men in only one trait: they were less "learned."

U.S. media teachers appeared more varied in some qualities than in others. (See "Variability" lines.) Male teachers especially ranged most widely in their "unselfishness," "stability," and "democratic" qualities.

The highest-ranking personality differences distinguishing teachers from students and others (Figure 14) were, of course, age and learning. Teachers were, on the whole, also considerably more "stable," "unselfish," and "moral" than students.

Great Britain. The personality structure of media teachers in Great Britain was virtually the same as in the U.S. However, while British media teachers were not so different from students in "morality" and "unselfishness" as were teachers in U.S. media, British teachers appeared relatively "happy" (or "others" relatively "unhappy"), relatively more "democratic" and less "tragic," and more lacking in "sex appeal" compared to other characters in the same stories than did the U.S. media teachers. (See Figures 15 and 16.)

West Germany. The West German media teacher (Figure 17) was, above all, "learned." "Morality," "goodness," "purposefulness" were next but by a greater margin than in the U.S. or Great Britain. And, unlike the teachers of other Western mass media, the West German teacher was no longer on the "youthful" side. His portrayals varied most in "democratic" qualities, and in "unselfishness" and "stability" -- as did those of his U.S. and British counterparts.

He was distinguished from his students and from other characters in the same stories (aside from his age and learning) primarily by lacking "sex appeal" but still remaining more "manly" (or perhaps only predominantly male) in comparison. He was also more "strong," "unselfish," "stable," and "purposeful" than his students, and more "moral" but less "congenial" than the other composite character types (Figure 18).

France. The French media teacher was as "good" and "learned" as he was "purposeful," and only a little less "moral." His "sex appeal" matched his "congeniality," but he was not very "lively" and not at all "happy." "Strength," "democratic" qualities, "unselfishness," and "stability" were among the least uniform aspects of his portrayal (Figure 19).

Despite a decidedly tragic aspect especially of the female teacher in French media, the overall teacher image differed most (aside from age and learning) from that of students in that students rated even higher in "tragic" quality. Teachers (especially males) lacked "strength," "sex appeal," and "vitality" in relation to others. They were more "selfish" than students (though less than the "others"), and less "democratic" than students (though more than the "others"), (Figure 20).

Poland. Teachers in Polish mass media were not only highly "learned," "purposeful," "moral" and "good" (the highest-ranking qualities in all countries), but almost equally "democratic." "Democratic" qualities were rated as high as "goodness" in Poland (Figure 21).

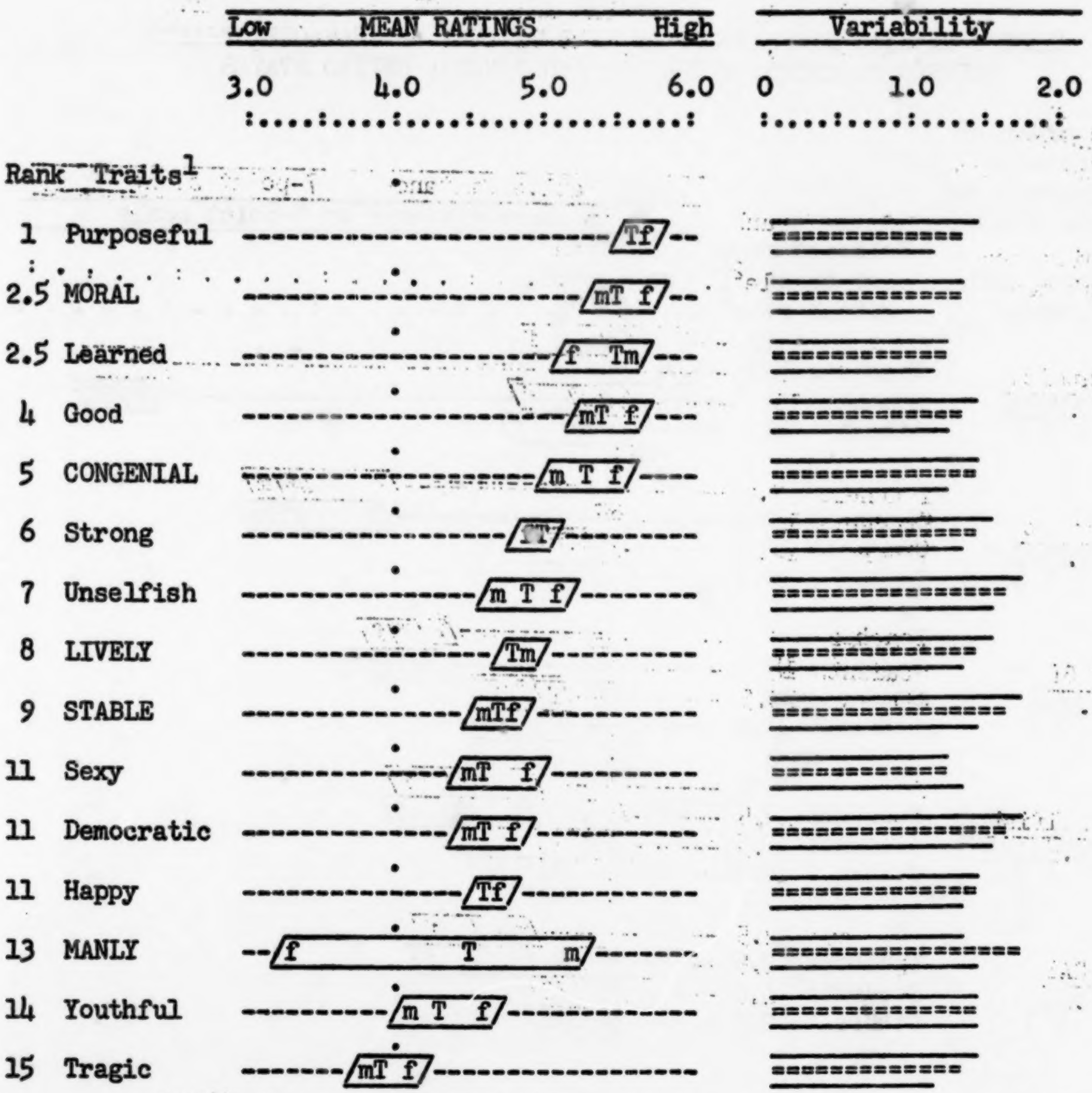
Polish media teachers were rated as conspicuously less "strong" than either students or "other" characters. The Polish teacher image, as the French, had some "tragic" quality in comparison with other Western countries; but the "tragic" aspects of other characters, including students, appeared to be even more sharply drawn. Both teachers and students appeared, on the whole, decidedly more "congenial" than did other characters in the same stories (Figure 22).

Czechoslovakia. Czechoslovak media teachers were, above all, "moral," although males varied considerably on this factor. Their "democratic" qualities received nearly as high priority as in Poland, but again male teachers exhibited high variability (Figure 23).

Unlike in Poland, however, the "other" characters appeared to be still more "democratic," "unselfish," and "congenial" than did male (but not female) teachers (Figure 24).

FIGURE 13

MEANS AND VARIABILITY OF TEACHERS' CHARACTER TRAITS; UNITED STATES



Explanation of symbols

MEAN RATINGS: The boxed letters above represent mean ratings of all teachers (T), male (m) and female (f) teachers, on 7-point "personality differential" rating scales.

[1] Traits stand for "personality differential" scales and factors ranked in order of mean rating for all teachers (T). The higher (farther right) the mean, the more pronounced the character trait. Means left of center (column of dots) are closer to opposite of the trait named. Factors are capitalized.

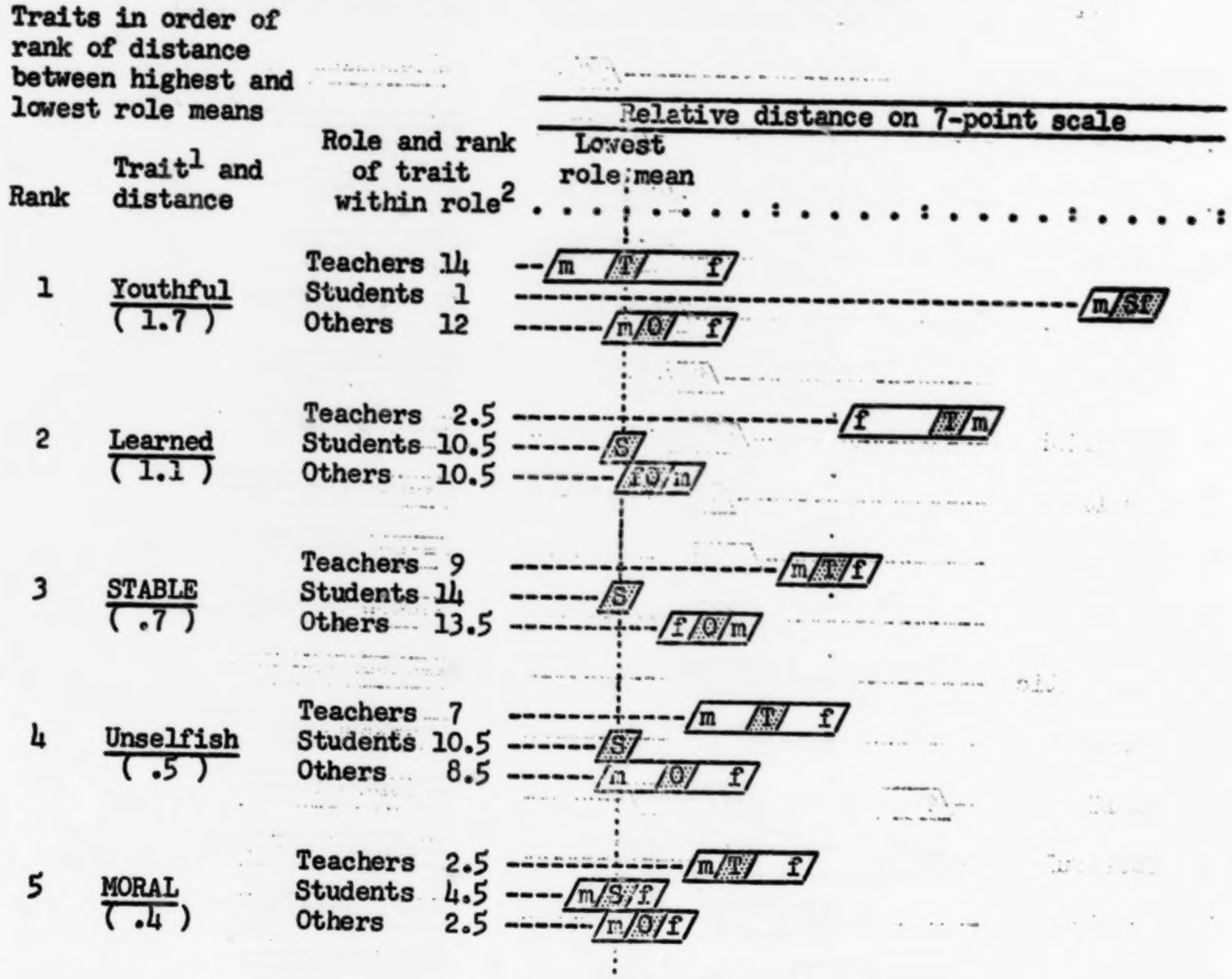
VARIABILITY: The lines above represent standard deviations of mean ratings for each trait shown on the left, in units of 0.1 scale points.

The longer the line, the greater the degree of variability.

Top line represents s.d. for males; center (===) is s.d. for all teachers; bottom line is s.d. for female teachers.

FIGURE 14

HIGHEST RANKING DIFFERENCES IN MEAN RATINGS OF CHARACTER TRAITS BETWEEN TEACHERS, STUDENTS, AND OTHERS; UNITED STATES



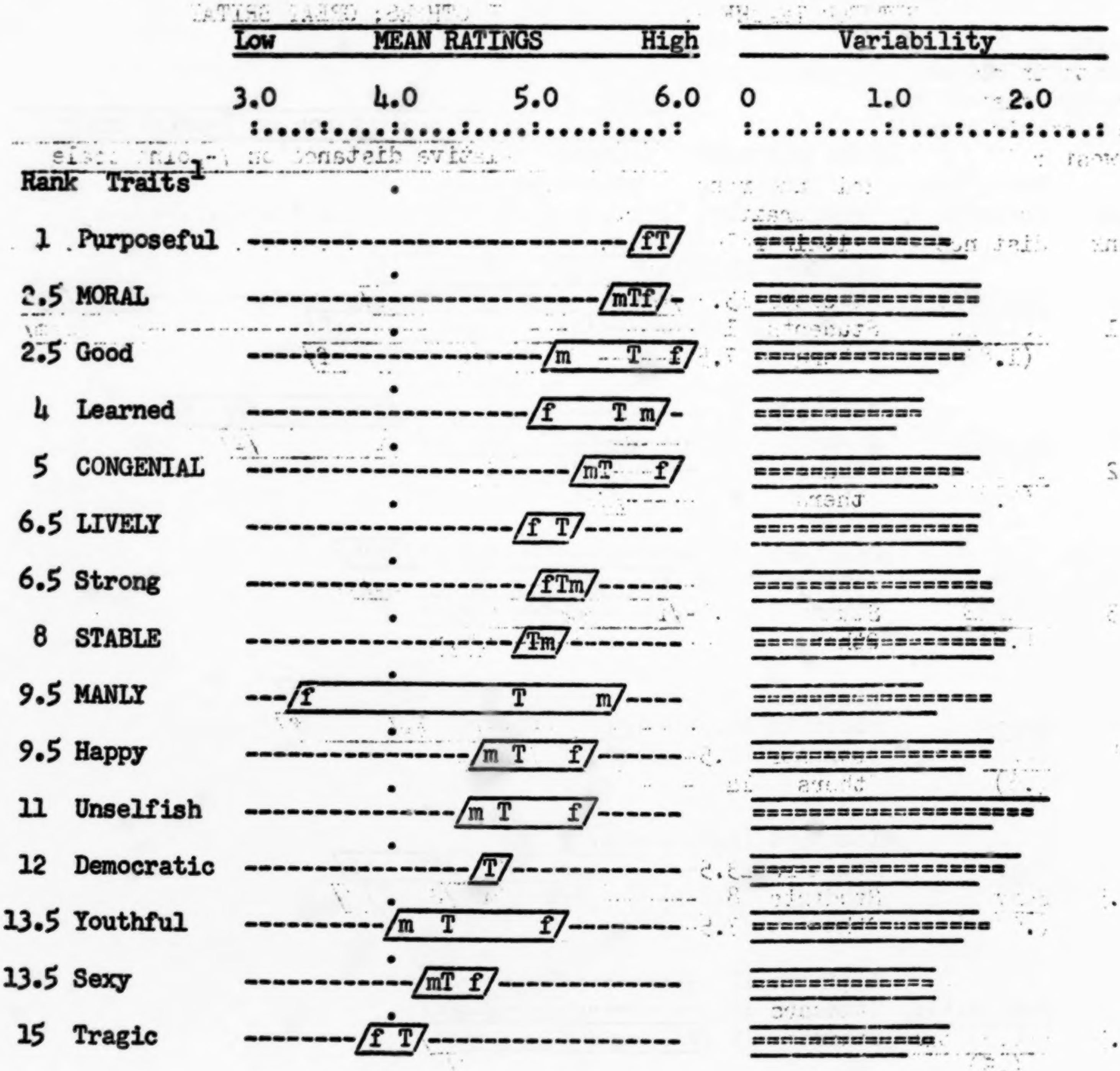
T, S, O mark the mean rating of all teachers, students, and others, respectively, in relation to each other. The lowest of the three means for each trait appears in the same column so that distances can be compared. Traits are ranked in order of these distances. The letters m̄ and f̄ mark the mean rating of males and females within each role.

[1] Factors are capitalized.

[2] "Rank of trait within role" is the rank assigned to the means of all teachers, students, and others on each of these traits out of all 15 traits rated.

FIGURE 15

MEANS AND VARIABILITY OF TEACHERS' CHARACTER TRAITS; GREAT BRITAIN



Explanation of symbols

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[1] Traits stand for "personality differential" scales and factors ranked in order of mean rating for all teachers (T). The higher (farther right) the mean, the more pronounced the character trait. Means left of center (column of dots) are closer to opposite of the trait named. Factors are capitalized.

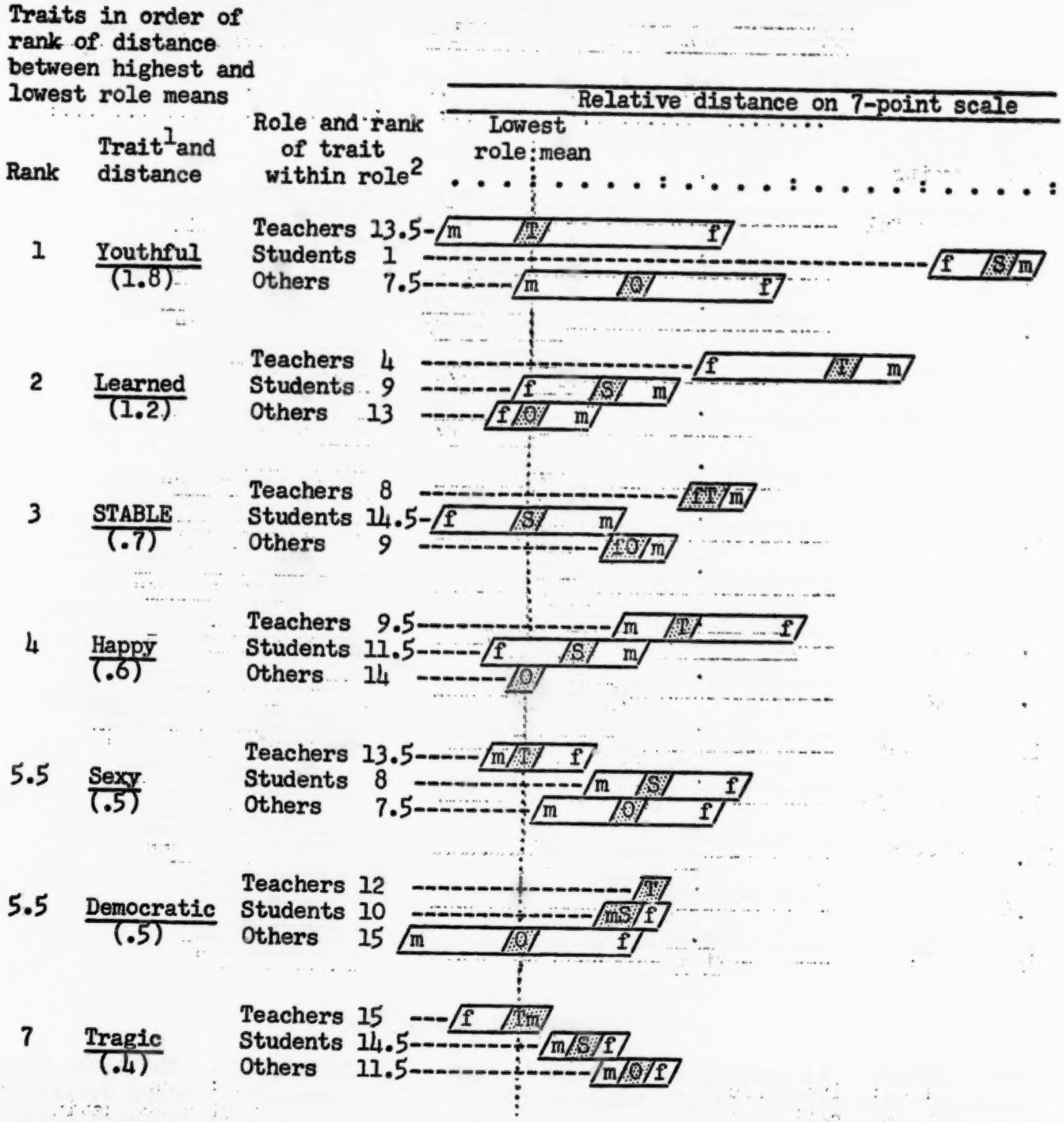
VARIABILITY: The lines above represent standard deviations of mean ratings for each trait shown on the left, in units of 0.1 scale points.

The longer the line, the greater the degree of variability.

Top line represents s.d. for males; center (===) is s.d. for all teachers; bottom line is s.d. for female teachers.

FIGURE 16

HIGHEST RANKING DIFFERENCES IN MEAN RATINGS OF CHARACTER TRAITS BETWEEN TEACHERS, STUDENTS, AND OTHERS; GREAT BRITAIN



T, S, O mark the mean rating of all teachers, students, and others, respectively, in relation to each other. The lowest of the three means for each trait appears in the same column so that distances can be compared. Traits are ranked in order of these distances. The letters $\bar{m}$ and $\bar{f}$ mark the mean rating of males and females within each role.

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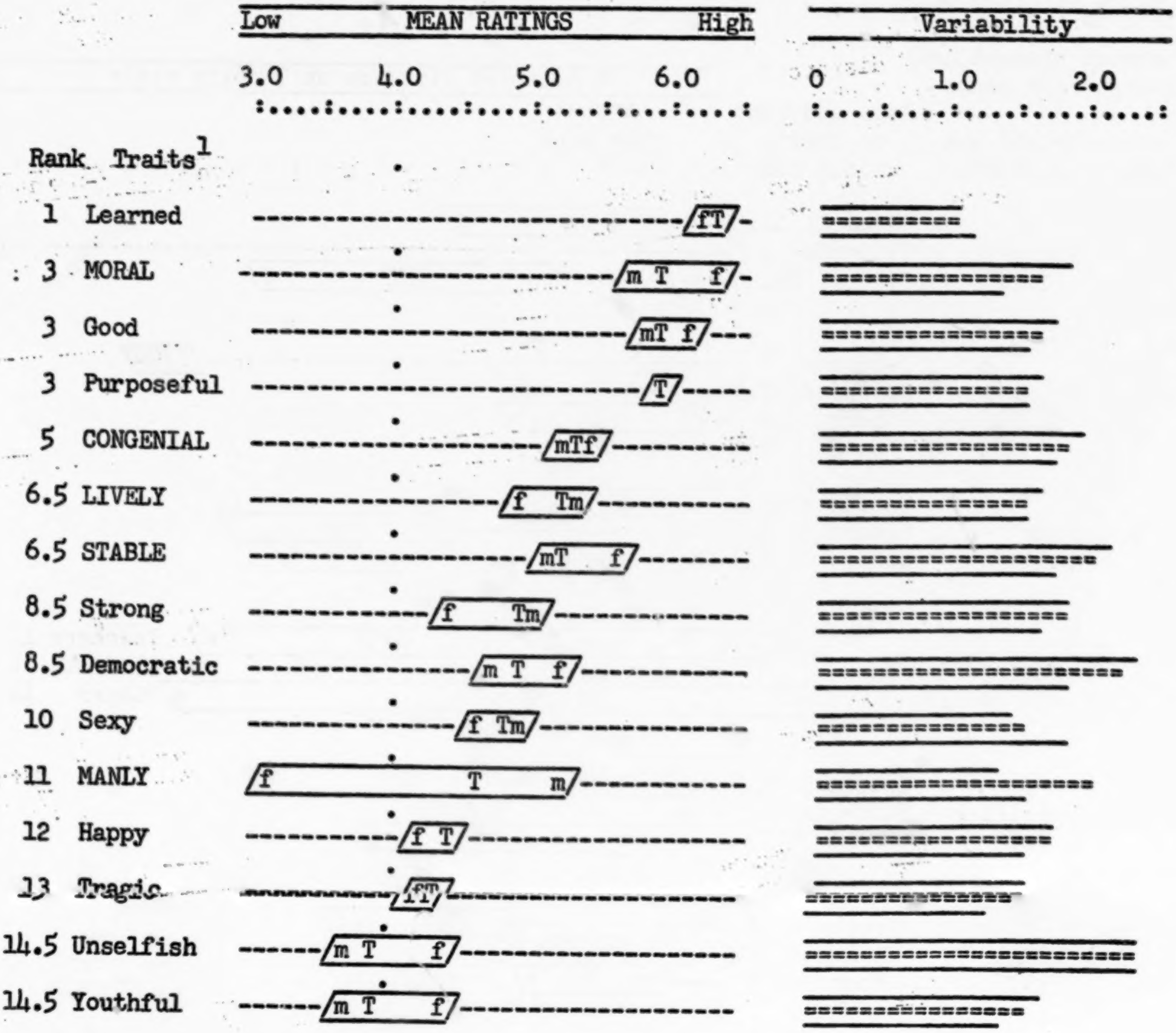
[1] Factors are capitalized.

[2] "Rank of trait within role" is the rank assigned to the means of all teachers, students, and others on each of these traits out of all 15 traits rated.

FIGURE 17

MEANS AND VARIABILITY OF TEACHERS' CHARACTER TRAITS; WEST GERMANY



Explanation of symbols

MEAN RATINGS: The boxed letters above represent mean ratings of all teachers (T), male (m) and female (f) teachers, on 7-point "personality differential" rating scales.

[1] Traits stand for "personality differential" scales and factors ranked in order of mean rating for all teachers (T). The higher (farther right) the mean, the more pronounced the character trait. Means left of center (column of dots) are closer to opposite of the trait named. Factors are capitalized.

VARIABILITY: The lines above represent standard deviations of mean ratings for each trait shown on the left, in units of 0.1 scale points.

The longer the line, the greater the degree of variability.

Top line represents s.d. for males; center (===) is s.d. for all teachers; bottom line is s.d. for female teachers.

FIGURE 18

HIGHEST RANKING DIFFERENCES IN MEAN RATINGS OF CHARACTER TRAITS BETWEEN TEACHERS, STUDENTS, AND OTHERS; WEST GERMANY

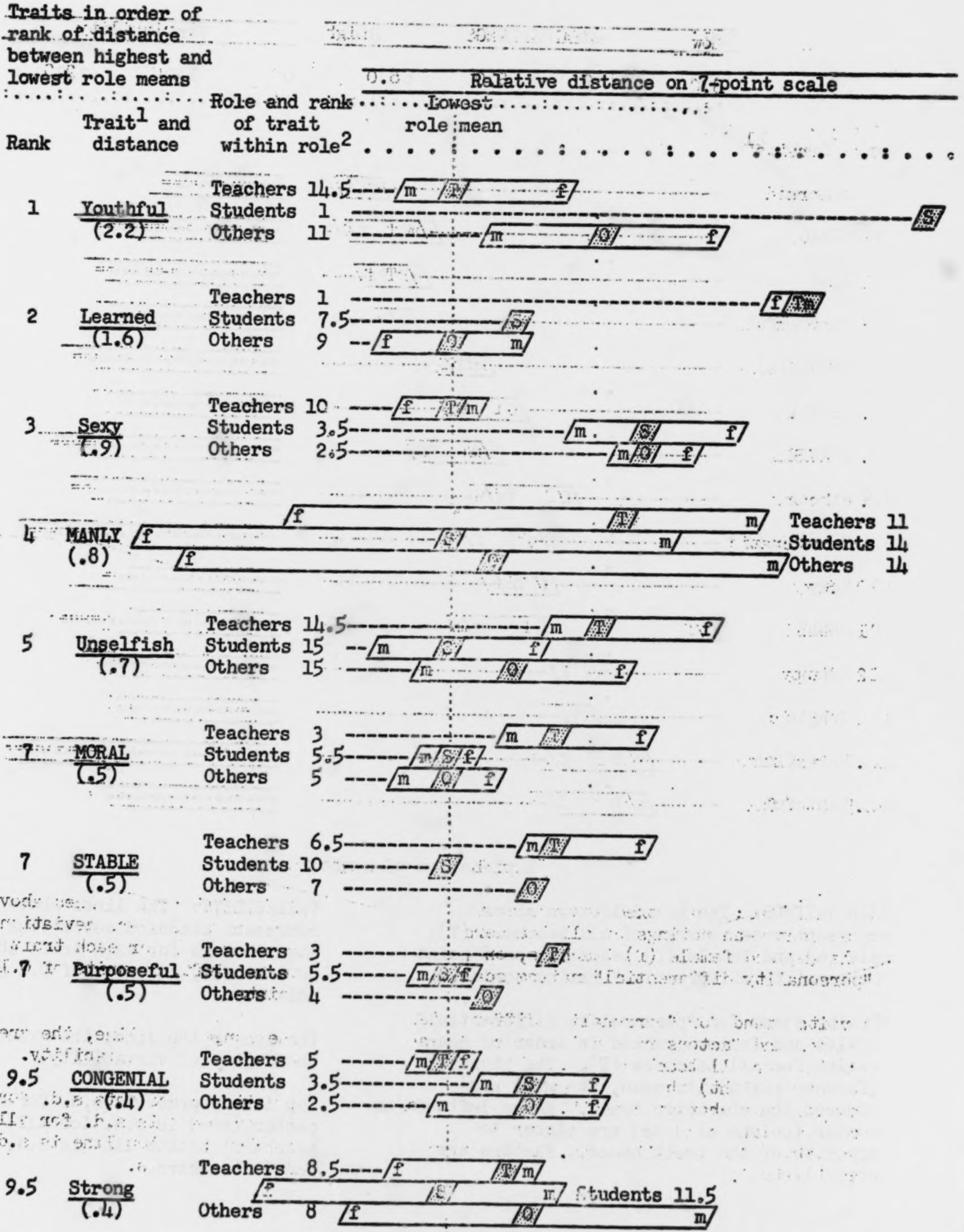
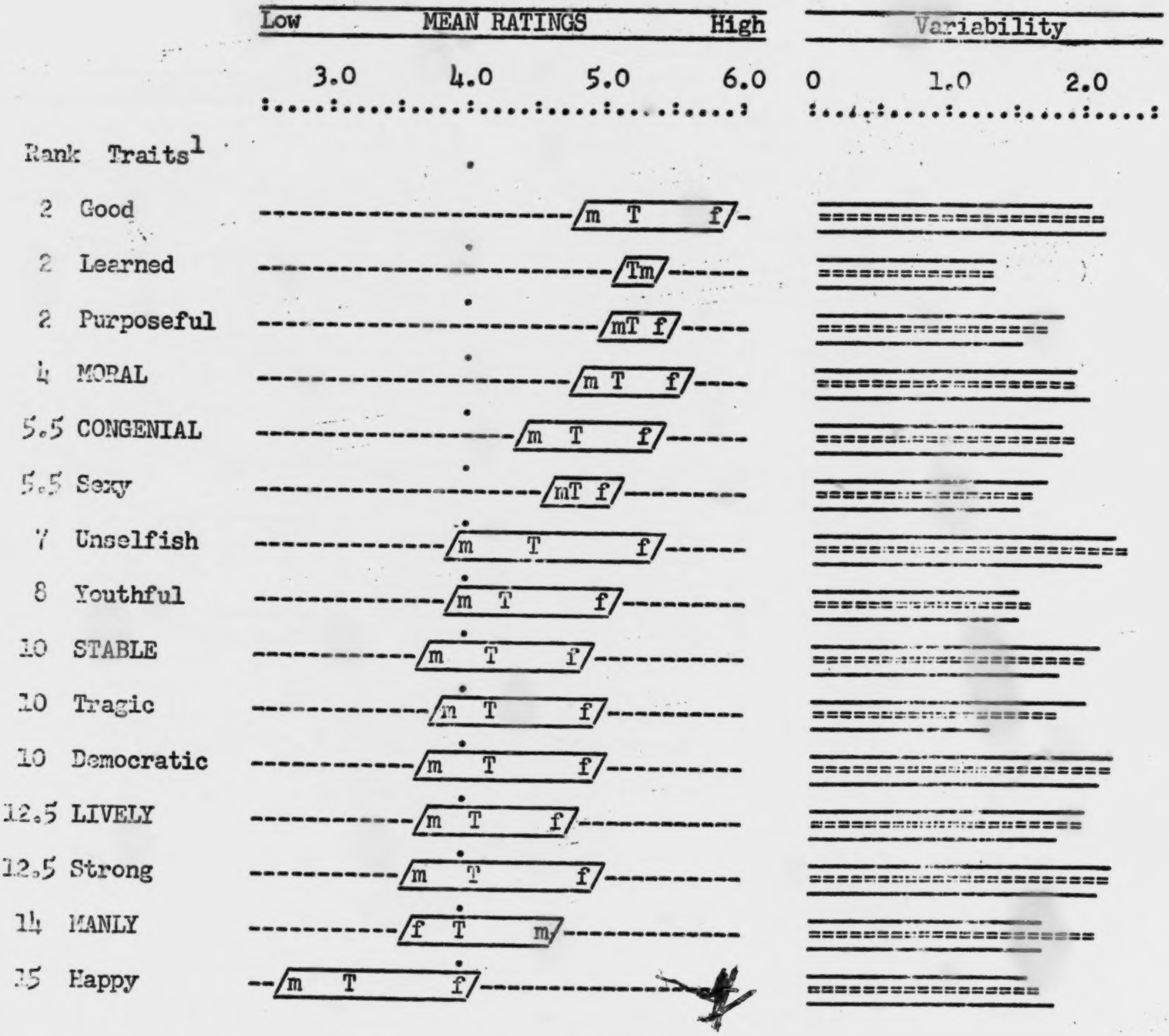


FIGURE 19

MEANS AND VARIABILITY OF TEACHERS' CHARACTER TRAITS; FRANCE



Explanation of symbols

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[1] Traits stand for "personality differential" scales and factors ranked in order of mean rating for all teachers (T). The higher (farther right) the mean, the more pronounced the character trait. Means left of center (column of dots) are closer to opposite of the trait named. Factors are capitalized.

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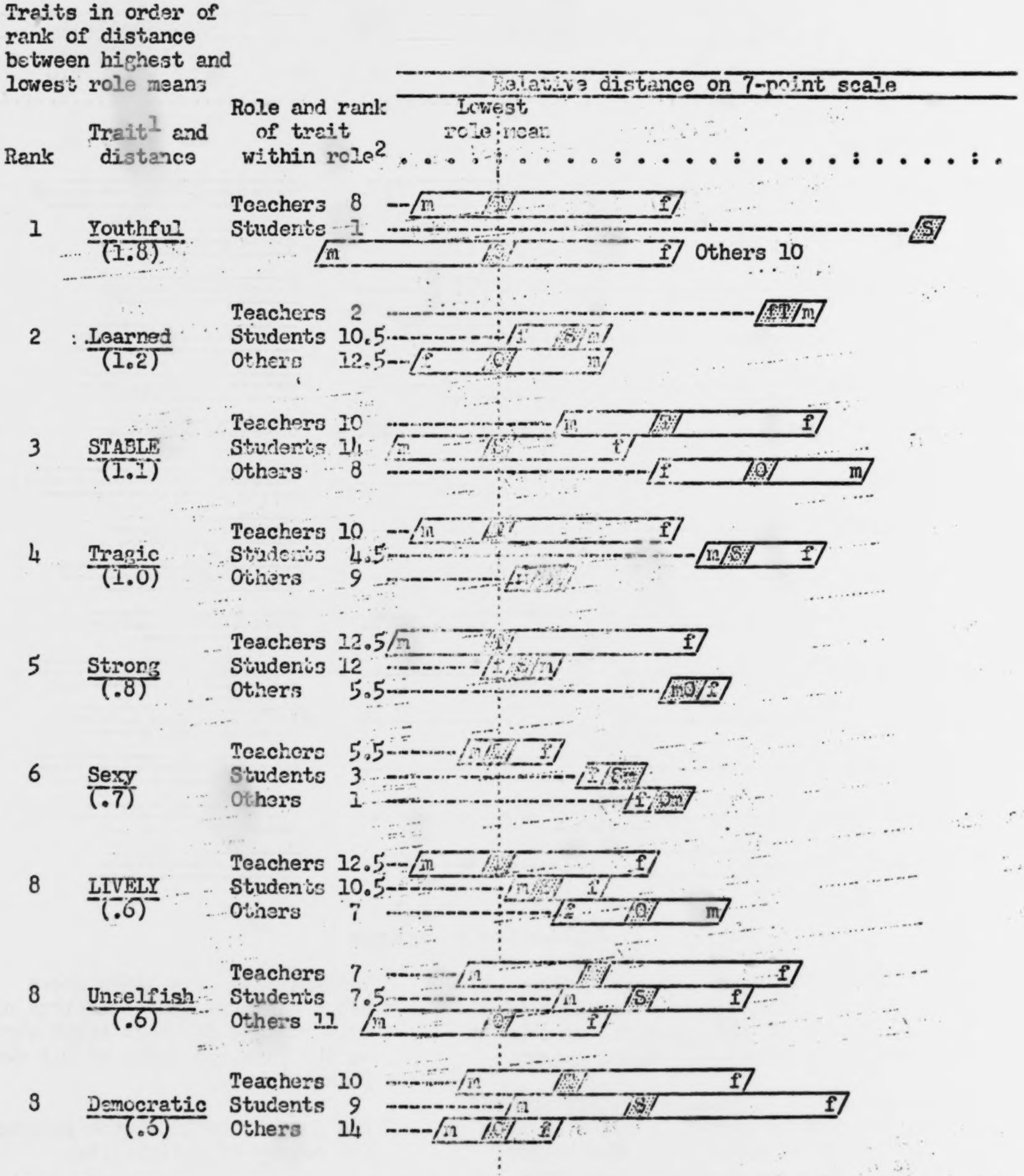
FIGURE 20

HIGHEST RANKING DIFFERENCES IN MEAN RATINGS OF CHARACTER TRAITS BETWEEN TEACHERS, STUDENTS, AND OTHERS; FRANCE



T, S, O mark the mean rating of all teachers, students, and others, respectively, in relation to each other. The lowest of the three means for each trait appears in the same column so that distances can be compared. Traits are ranked in order of these distances. The letters m and f mark the mean rating of males and females within each role.

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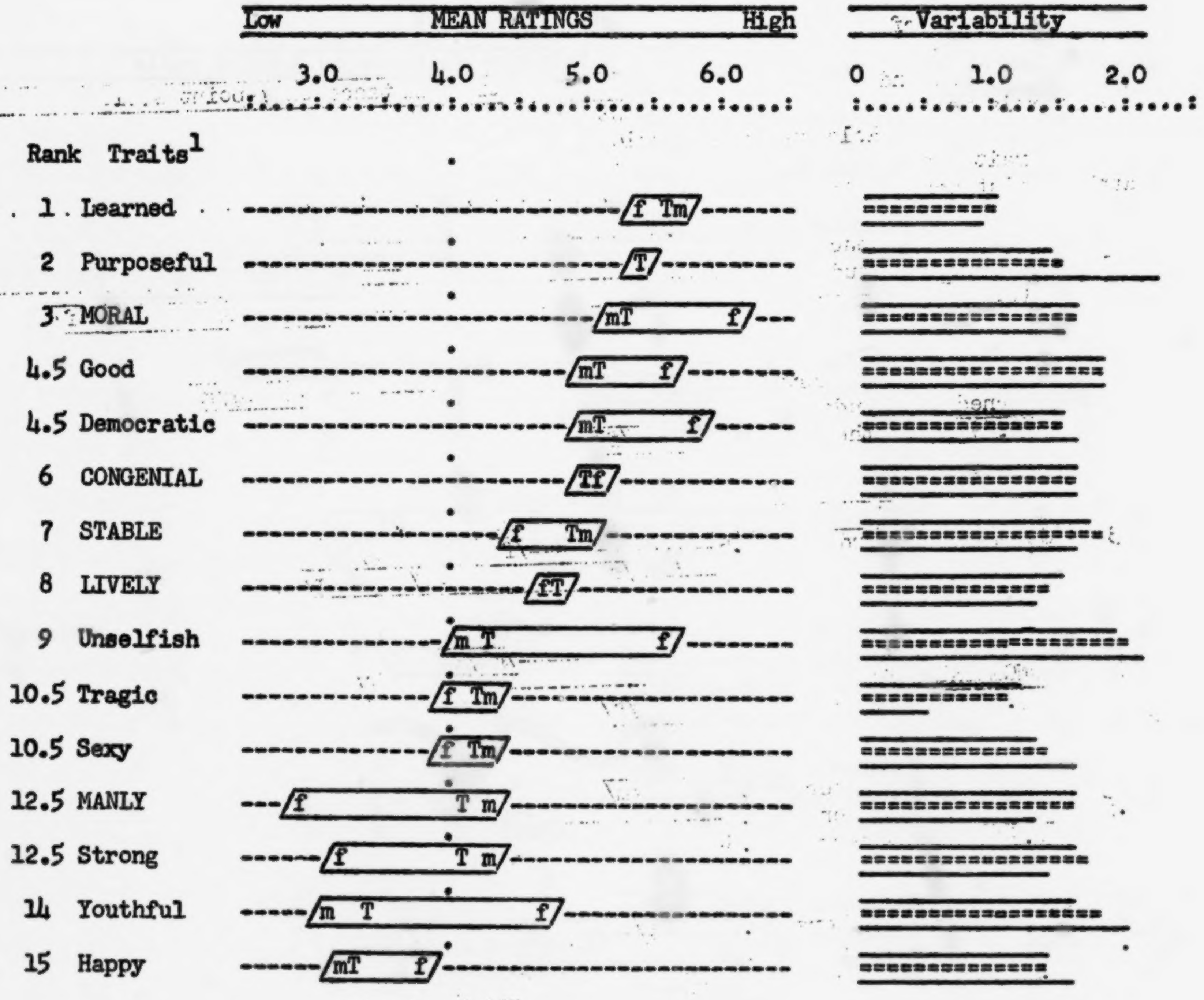
[1] Factors are capitalized.

[2] "Rank of trait within role" is the rank assigned to the means of all teachers, students, and others on each of these traits out of all 15 traits rated.

FIGURE 21

MEANS AND VARIABILITY OF TEACHERS' CHARACTER TRAITS; POLAND



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The longer the line, the greater the degree of variability.

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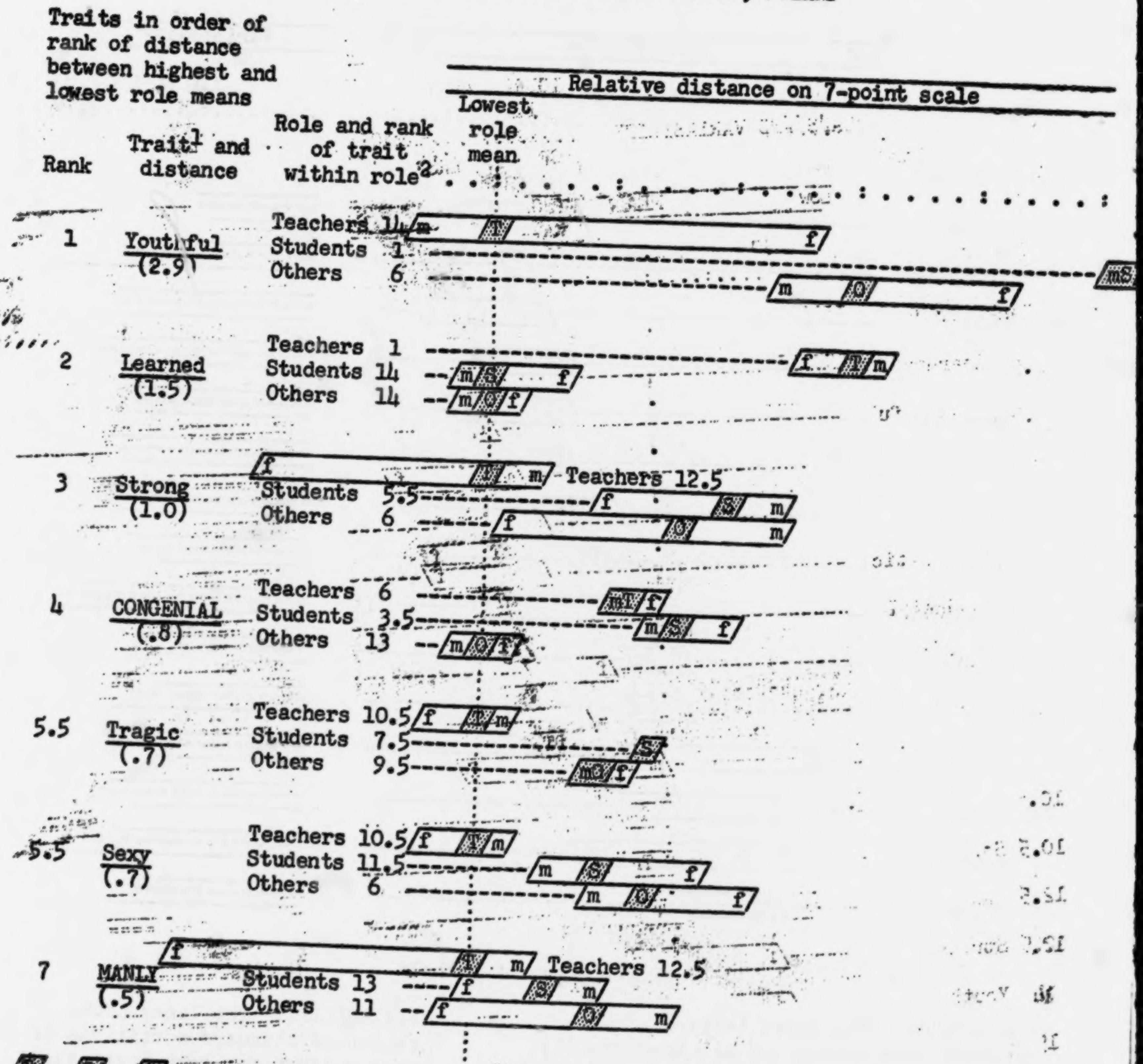
FIGURE 22

HIGHEST RANKING DIFFERENCES IN MEAN RATINGS OF CHARACTER TRAITS BETWEEN TEACHERS, STUDENTS, AND OTHERS; POLAND



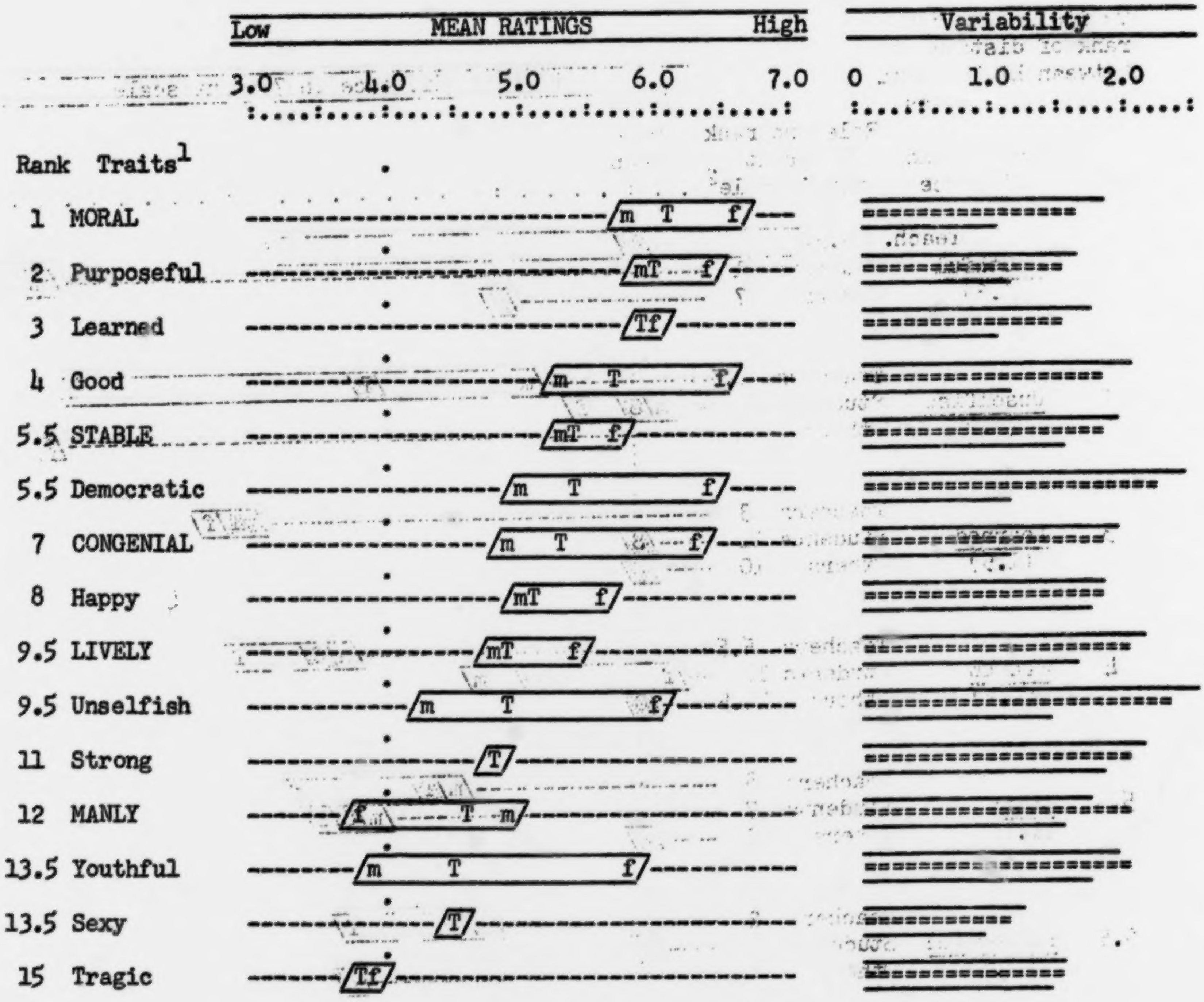
T, S, O mark the mean rating of all teachers, students, and others, respectively, in relation to each other. The lowest of the three means for each trait appears in the same column so that distances can be compared. Traits are ranked in order of these distances. The letters m and f mark the mean rating of males and females within each role.

[1] Factors are capitalized.

[2] "Rank of trait within role" is the rank assigned to the means of all teachers, students, and others on each of these traits out of all 15 traits rated.

FIGURE 23

MEANS AND VARIABILITY OF TEACHERS' CHARACTER TRAITS; CZECHOSLOVAKIA



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The longer the line, the greater the degree of variability.

Top line represents s.d. for males; center (===) is s.d. for all teachers; bottom line is s.d. for female teachers.

FIGURE 24

HIGHEST RANKING DIFFERENCES IN MEAN RATINGS OF CHARACTER TRAITS BETWEEN TEACHERS, STUDENTS, AND OTHERS; CZECHOSLOVAKIA

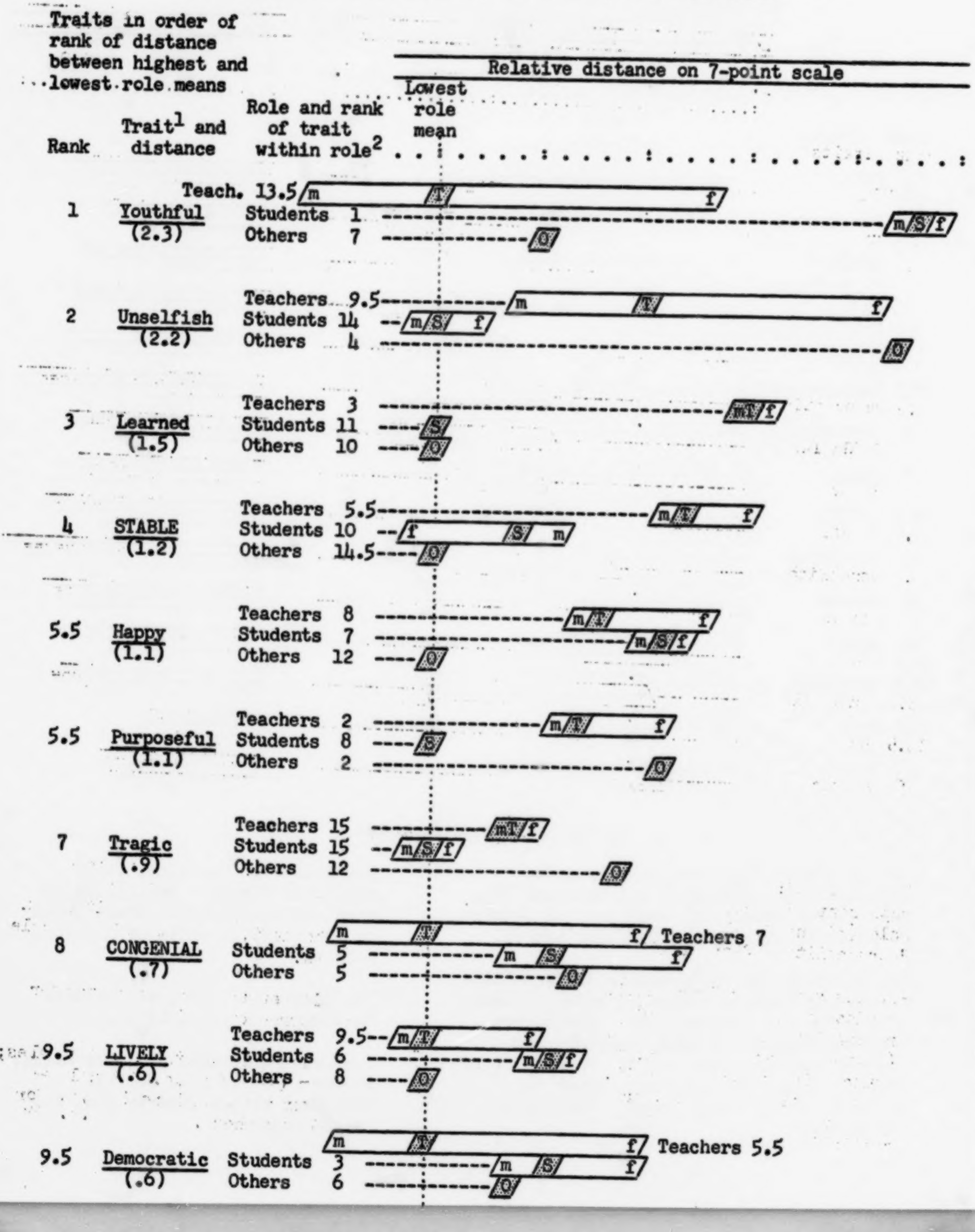
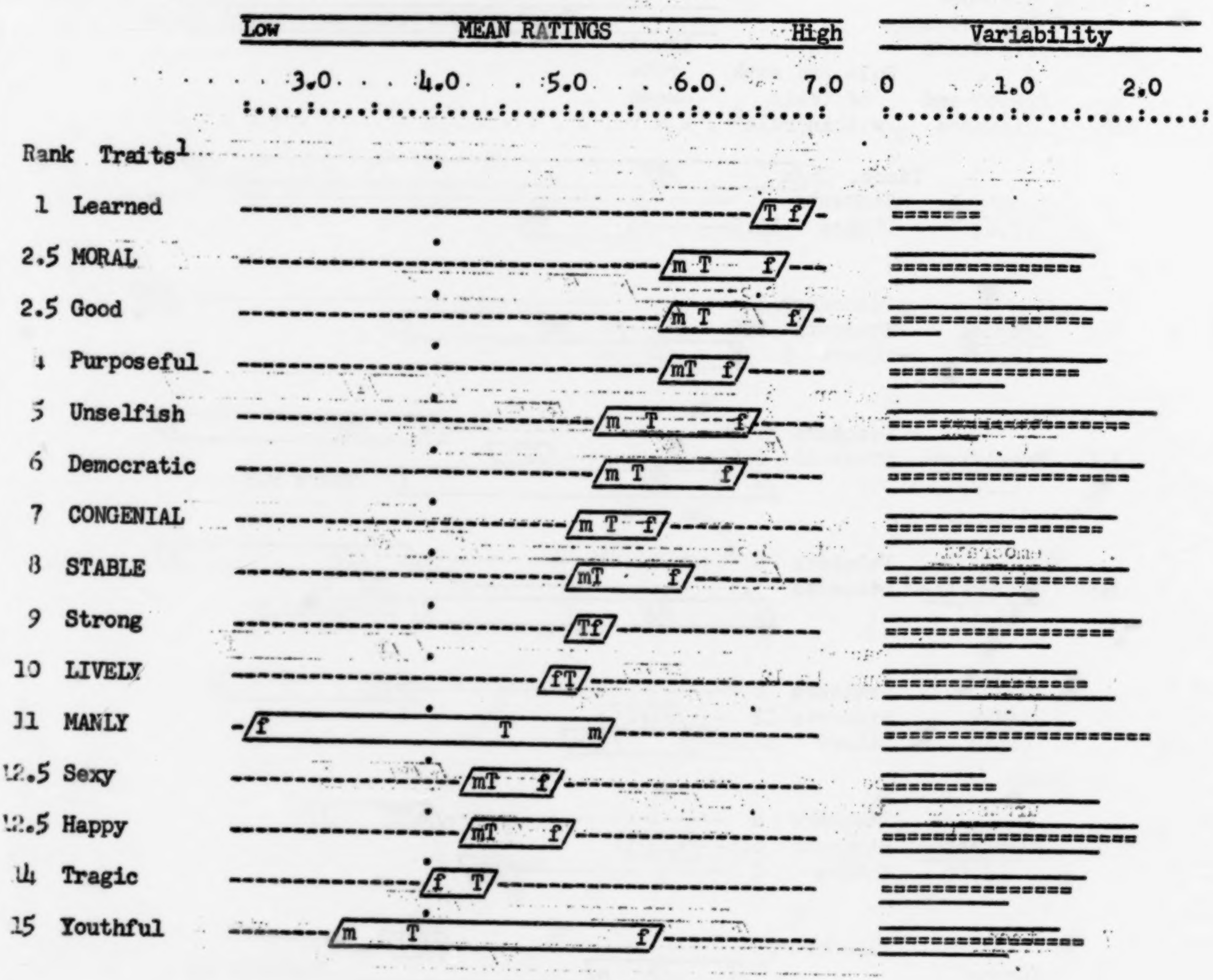


FIGURE 25

MEANS AND VARIABILITY OF TEACHERS' CHARACTER TRAITS; HUNGARY



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Top line represents s.d. for males; center (===) is s.d. for all teachers; bottom line is s.d. for female teachers.

FIGURE 26

HIGHEST RANKING DIFFERENCES IN MEAN RATINGS OF CHARACTER TRAITS BETWEEN TEACHERS, STUDENTS, AND OTHERS; HUNGARY

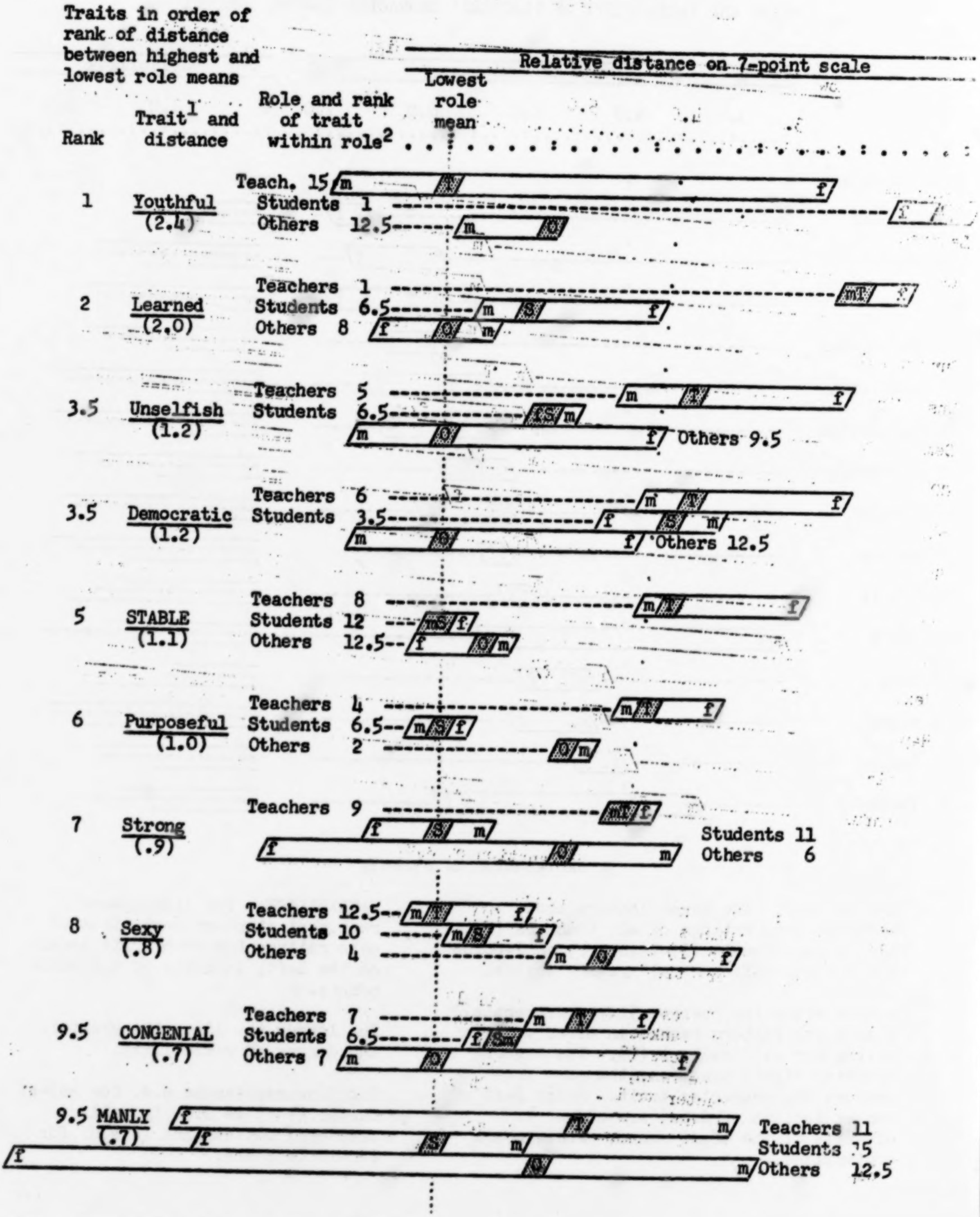
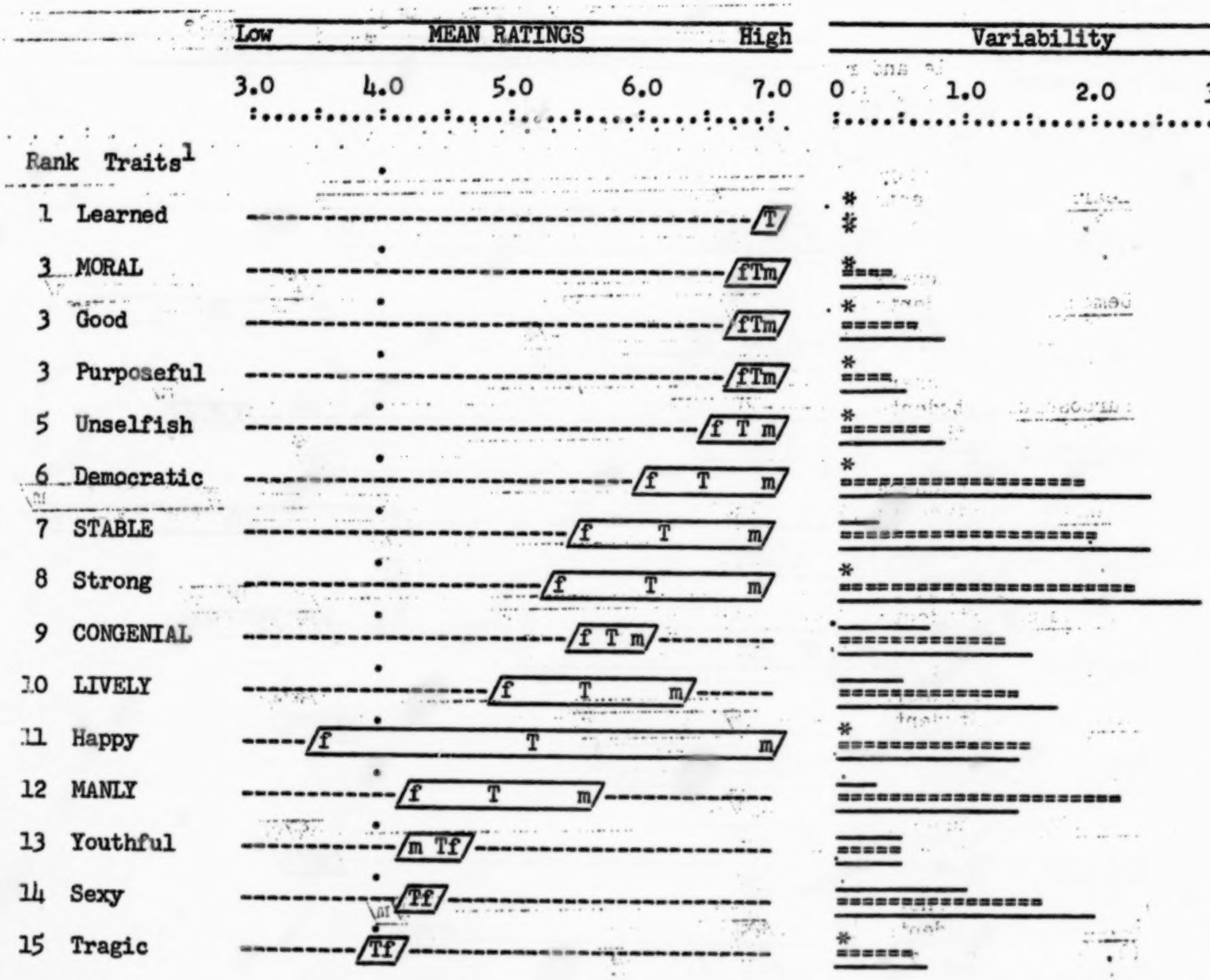


FIGURE 27

MEANS AND VARIABILITY OF TEACHERS' CHARACTER TRAITS; U.S.S.R.



Explanation of symbols

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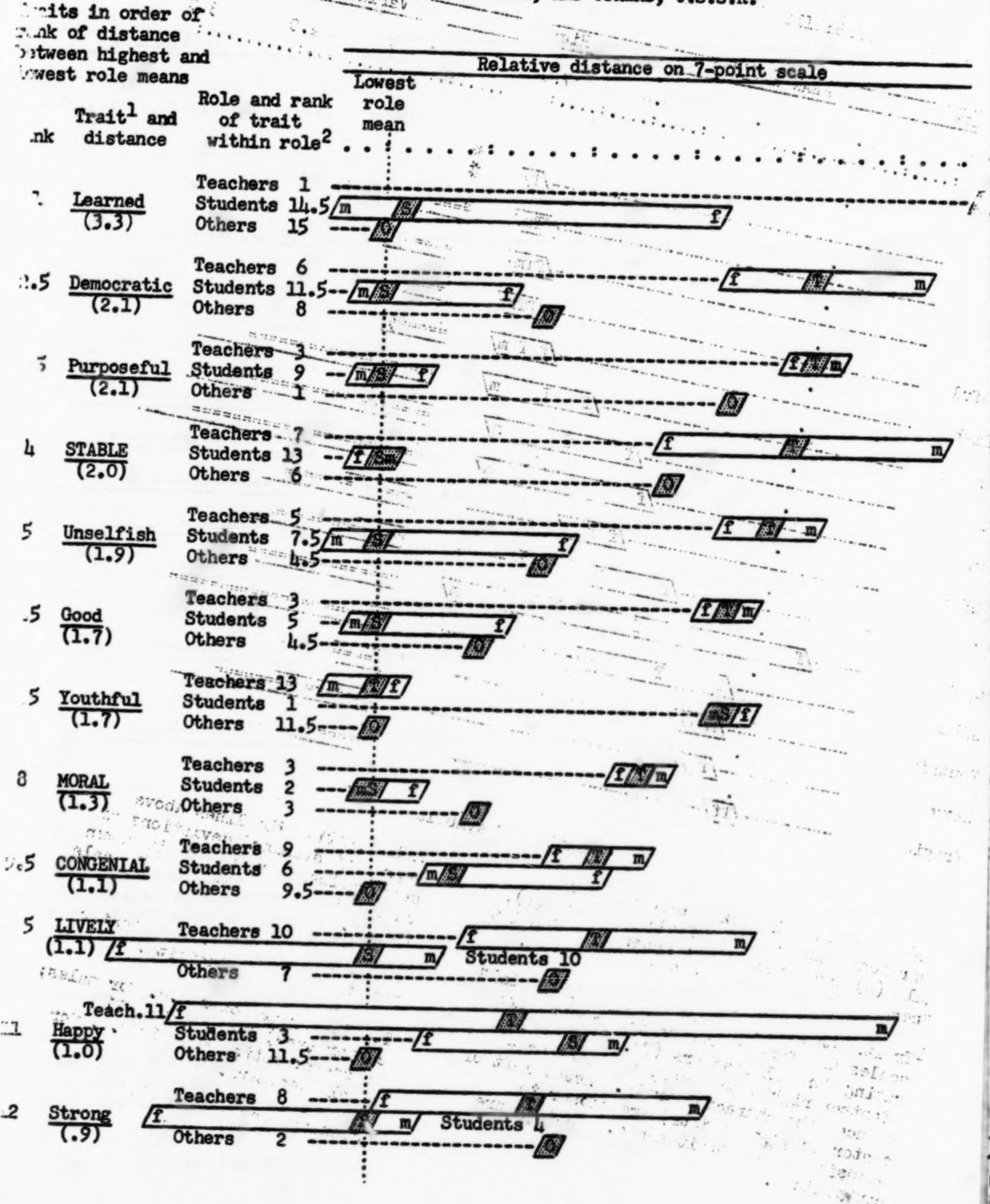
The longer the line, the greater the degree of variability.

Top line represents s.d. for males; center (===) is s.d. for all teachers; bottom line is s.d. for female teachers.

*Standard deviation = 0.

FIGURE 28

HIGHEST-RANKING DIFFERENCES IN MEAN RATINGS OF CHARACTER TRAITS BETWEEN TEACHERS, STUDENTS, AND OTHERS; U.S.S.R.



Hungary. Next to being "learned," "moral," "good," and "purposeful," Hungarian media teachers were most "unselfish." This trait (aside from age and learning) was also their principal distinction from others. Their next most pronounced characteristic was "democratic" quality which also set them apart from other characters in the same stories (Figures 25, 26).

U.S.S.R. The traits of "unselfishness" and "democratic" quality were given relatively high priority in the personality profile of Soviet film teachers. Their chief distinguishing features were being "learned," as in all countries. But, unlike in most other countries, Soviet film teachers were also markedly more "democratic," "purposeful," "stable," "unselfish," and "good" than their students, Figures 27, 28).

Personality factor scores across countries

Comparisons of mean ratings by role and sex on each factor across countries and areas can be made by inspecting Figures 29 to 35 below. These Figures are based on Appendix IV-C, Tables 11 through 15. Highest ranking differences in mean ratings between teachers and the other two groups of characters can be compared by inspecting Figure 13 above (for the U.S.) and Figures 34 (Western Europe) and 35 (Eastern Europe) below. Comparative findings on some individual traits will be discussed and illustrated in the next section.

Factor scores. Figures 29 through 35 indicate the position of the mean factor scores on a 7-point scale, and also include the average of the role and sex means, i.e. the "norm," for each country and area. Thus role deviations can be visually inspected. (For tabulation of these deviations in scale points see Appendix IV-C, Tables 11 through 15.)

In the Figures which follow, "A" stands for the "norm" for all characters; "T," "S," and "O," for the means of all teachers, students, and "others," respectively; "m" and "f" mark the position of male and female means. Where "m" or "f" (or both) are missing, the sex mean is the same as that of the role itself.

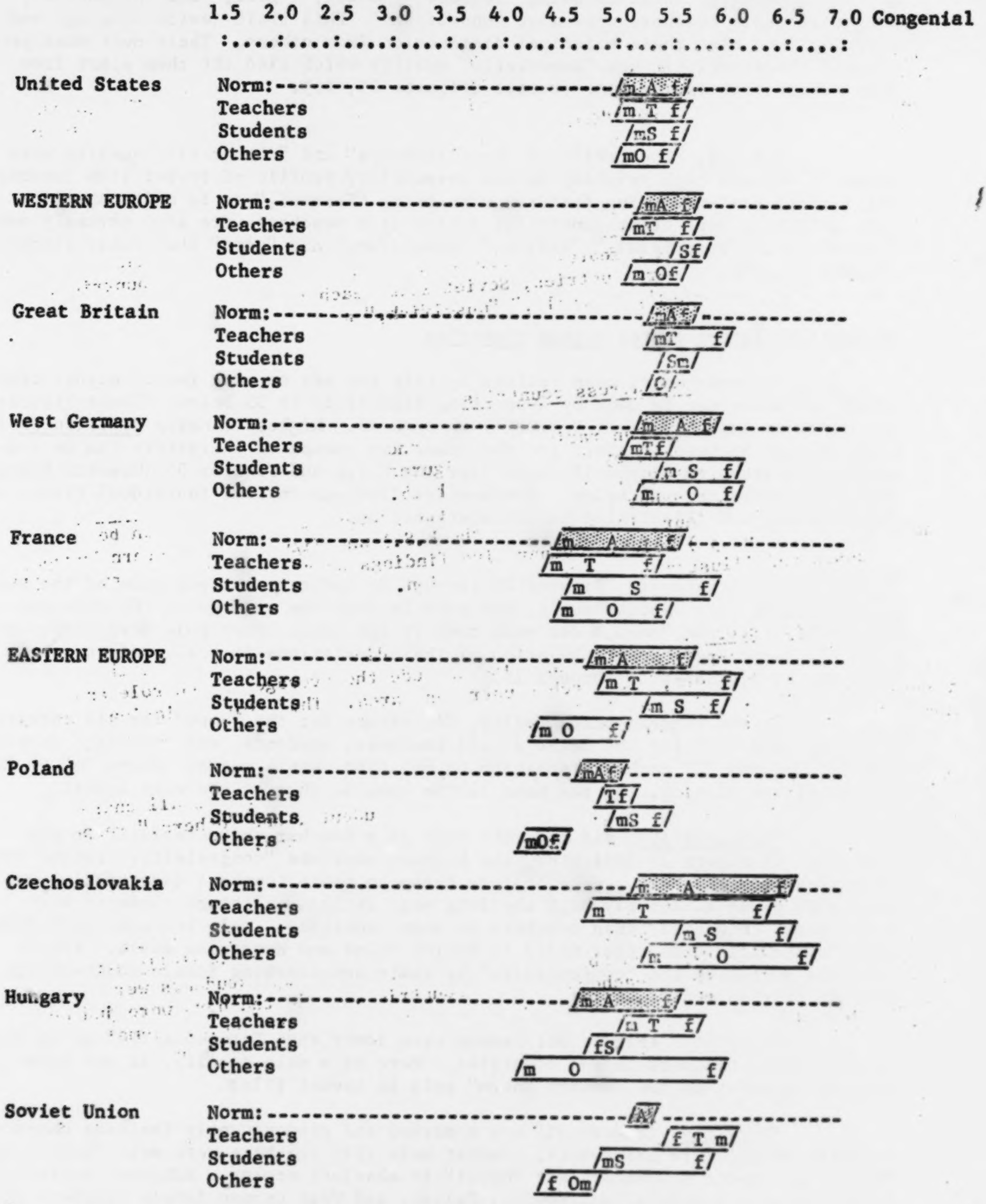
"Congeniality" did not rank high as a teacher characteristic in any country. As Figure 29 indicates, the highest absolute "congeniality" rating went to Soviet film teachers. Some Eastern European media teachers (especially females) were also given relatively high absolute mean ratings, although students were rated more "congenial" than teachers in most countries. Male teachers were judged more "congenial" than other males in Soviet films and Hungarian media. Female teachers surpassed the "congeniality" of their non-teaching female counterparts only in British media stories.

"Vitality" (Figure 30) ranked even lower than "congeniality" as an attribute of media teachers in all countries. More of a male quality, it was rated notably higher than the country "norm" only in Soviet films.

"Morality" (Figure 31) was a marked and predominantly feminine characteristic of teachers everywhere. Soviet male film teachers were most "moral" and French male media students least "moral" in absolute scores. However, Soviet and Hungarian male teachers, and Soviet, Polish, and West German female teachers stood out most in "morality" in relation to each country's own "norm."

FIGURE 29

"CONGENIALITY" FACTOR; COUNTRY AND AREA RATINGS BY ROLE AND SEX[1]



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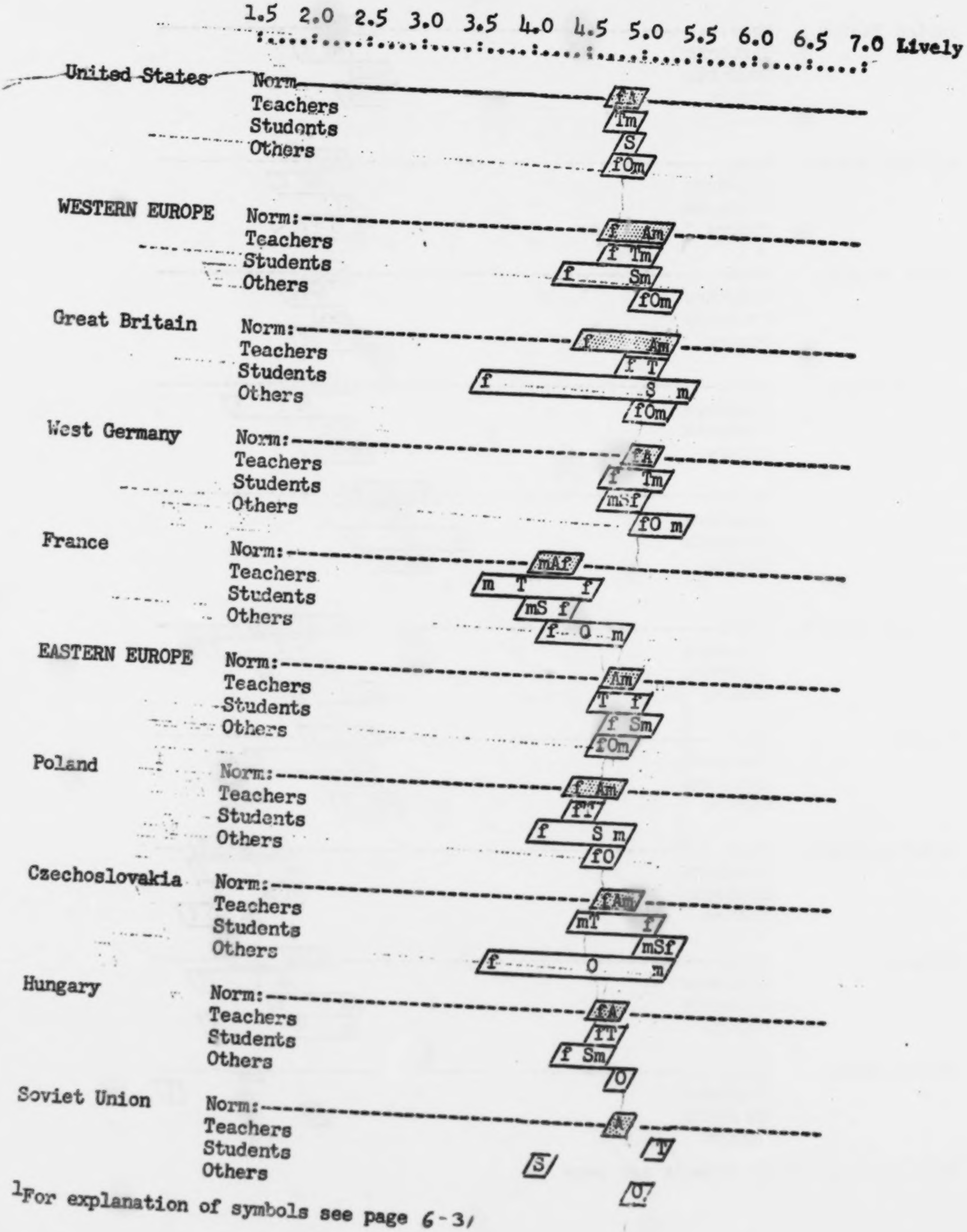
[1] For explanation of symbols see page 6-31.

FIGURE 30

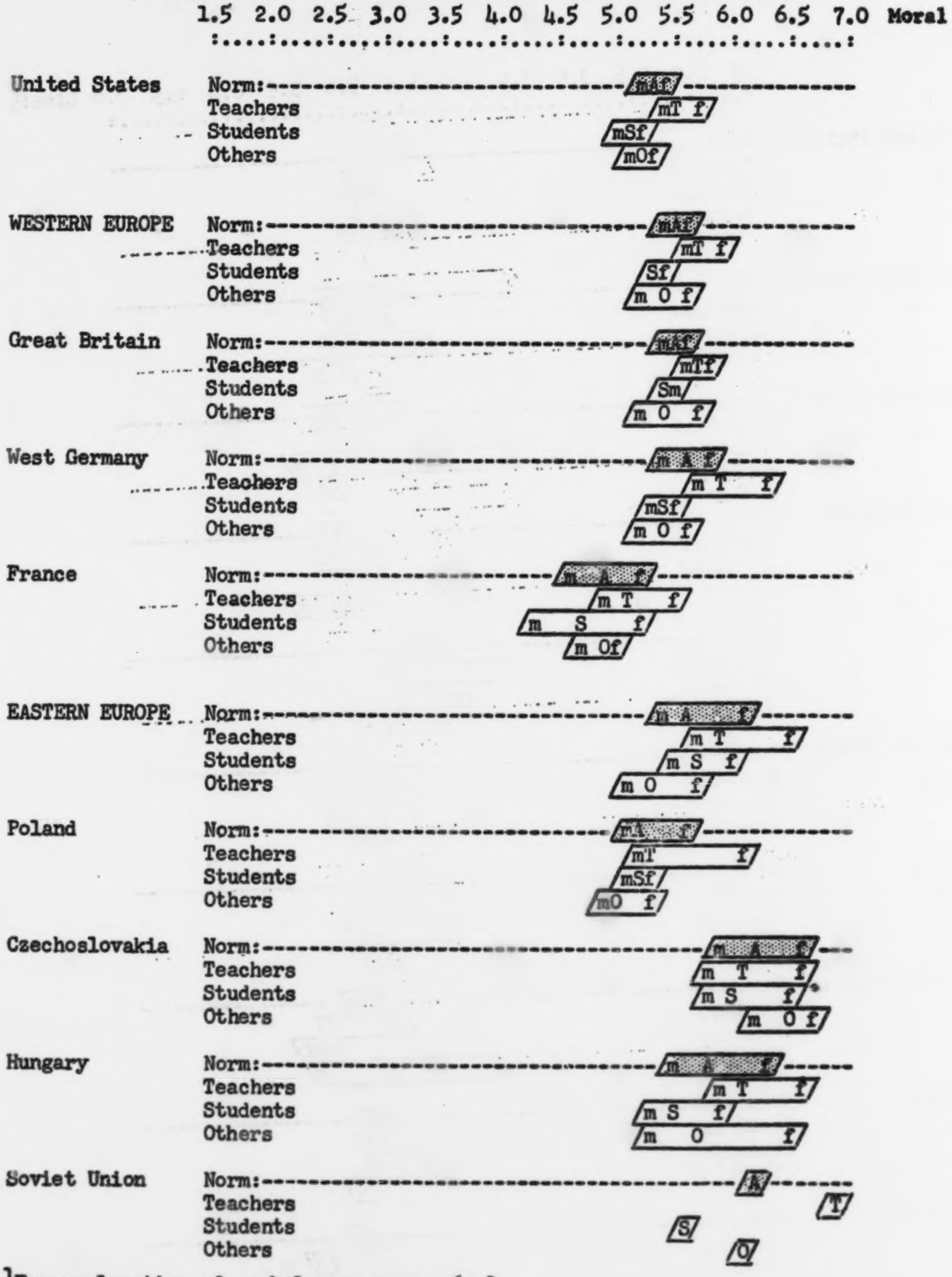
"VITALITY" FACTOR; COUNTRY AND AREA RATINGS BY ROLE AND SEX[1]



[1]For explanation of symbols see page 6-31

FIGURE 31

"MORALITY" FACTOR; COUNTRY AND AREA RATINGS BY ROLE AND SEX[1]



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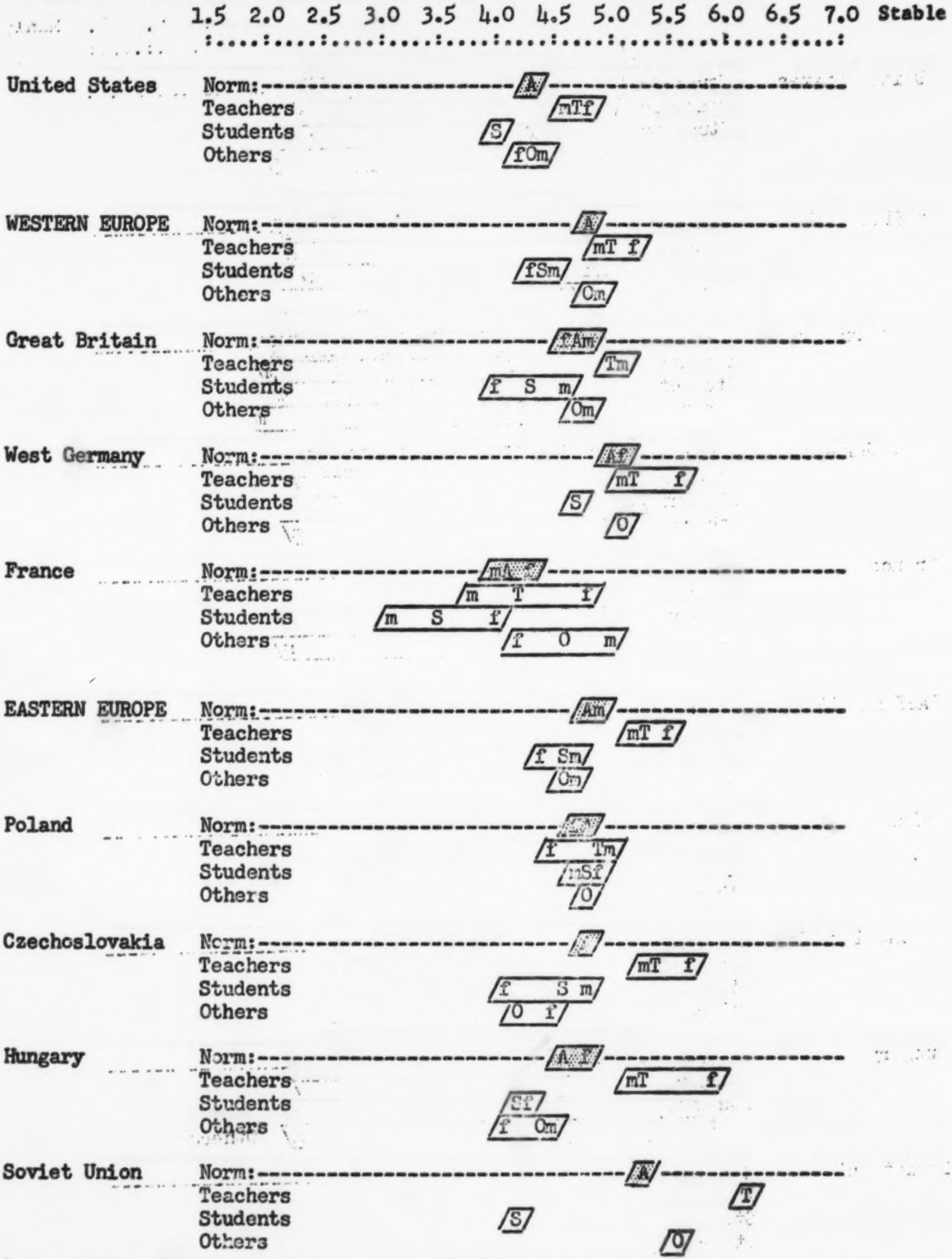
[1] For explanation of symbols see page 6-31

FIGURE 32

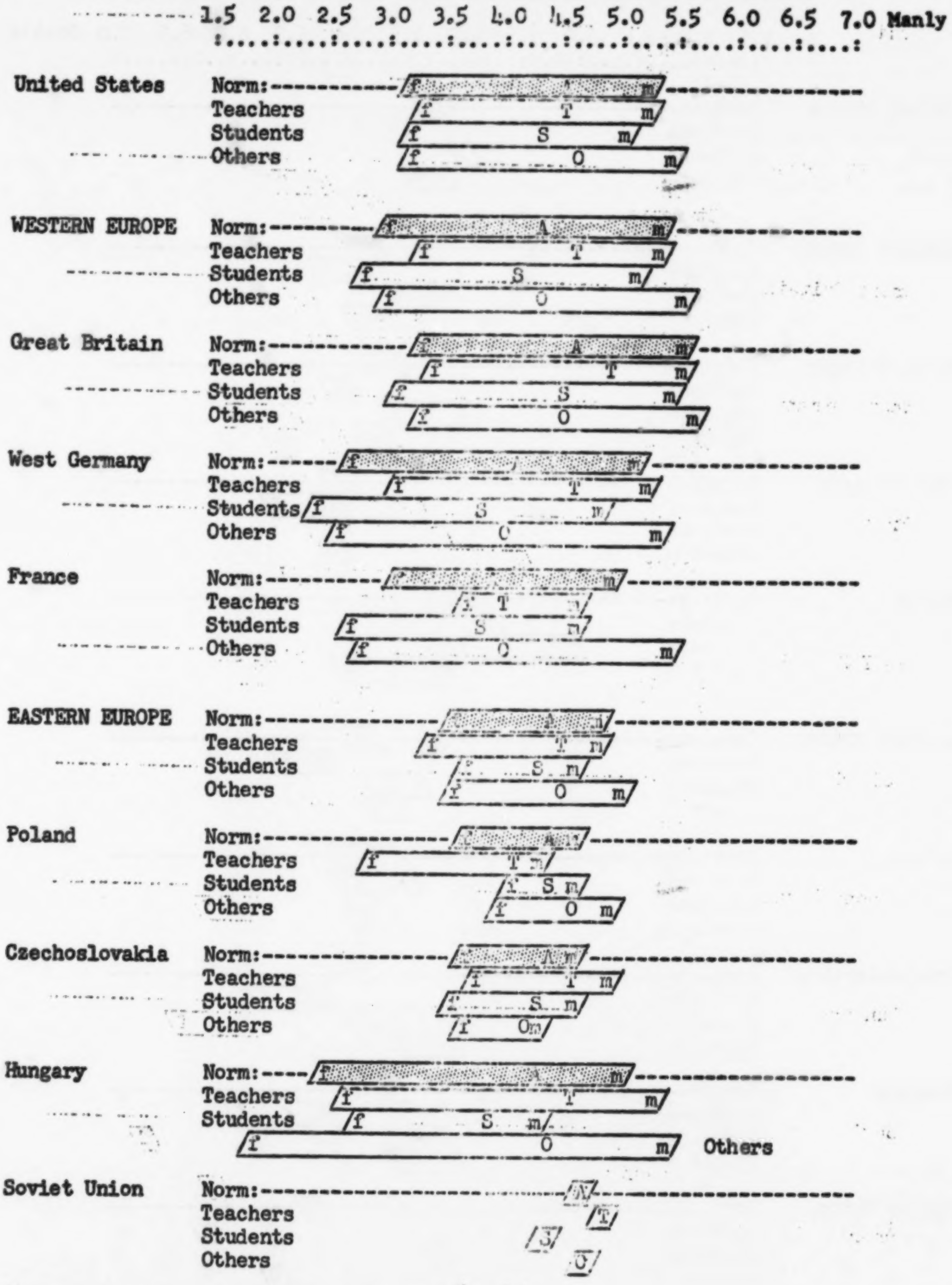
"STABILITY" FACTOR; COUNTRY AND AREA RATINGS BY ROLE AND SEX[1]



[1]For explanation of symbols see page 6-31

FIGURE 33

"MANLINESS" FACTOR; COUNTRY AND AREA RATINGS BY ROLE AND SEX[1]



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[1] For explanation of symbols see page 6-31

"Stability" (Figure 32) was a factor on which teachers rated lower than on "morality," but still higher than did most other groups of characters, especially in Soviet films, and in Hungarian and Czechoslovak mass media.

"Manliness" (Figure 33) was a sex-linked composite of traits. The male teachers of Czechoslovak media and Soviet films were more "manly" than other adult males; those of U.S., Western European, and Polish media were less "manly." Female teachers, however, were generally somewhat more "manly" (i.e. less feminine) than other adult females except in Polish media.

Role differences. It is evident from the above comparisons that there were more marked differences between teachers' personality profiles and those of other groups of characters in Eastern European and Soviet than in Western media. The ranking differences in factor and individual trait means in the three areas can be compared by inspecting Figure 14 (above) for U.S. media, and Figures 34 and 35 (below) for the other two areas.

The differences between the personality profile of teachers and other groups of characters in Eastern Europe appear to be not only greater and more numerous but also somewhat differently composed than in Western Europe and the U.S.

These differences were the least marked in the U.S. (Figure 14). Only three traits distinguished teachers from students or other characters by a difference of more than .5 scale points. They were, as we have noted before, the characteristics of being less "youthful," more "learned" and more "stable" than students or "others" (or both).

In Western Europe as a whole (Figure 34), in addition to the same differences, teachers were also conspicuous by their relative lack of "sex appeal."

In Eastern European media as a whole (Figure 35), ten traits marked teachers as being different from other groups of characters by more than .5 scale points. "Sex appeal" was not among them. However, in addition to age, learning, and stability, as in the U.S. and Western Europe, teachers were also significantly more "happy," "unselfish," "democratic," "purposeful," and "moral," and markedly less "strong" and "tragic" than one or both of the other two groups of characters.

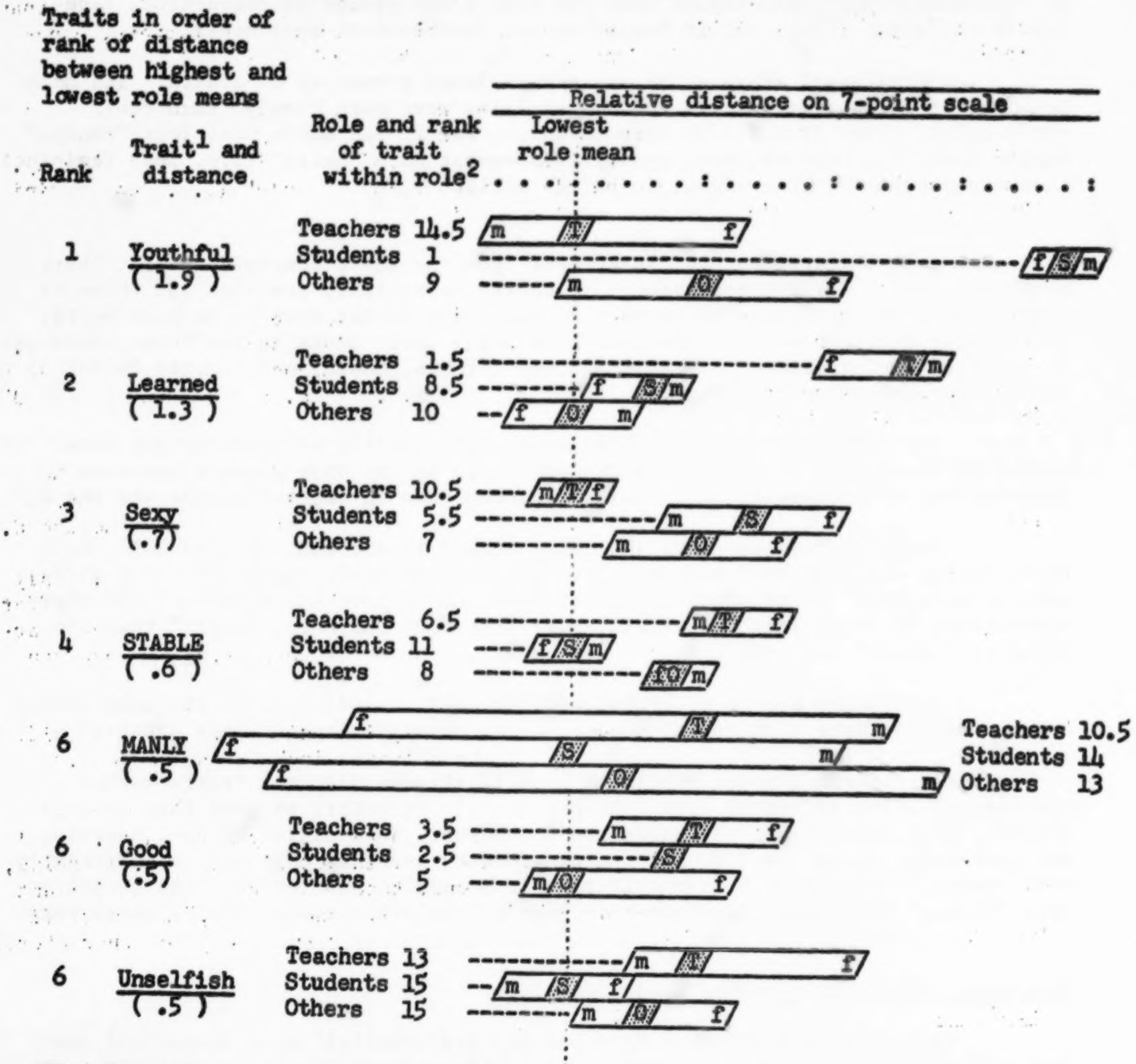
Happiness, strength, purpose, social morality

A number of individual "personality differential" mean scores and some findings of the analysis of dramatic action (Appendix IV-E) shed some light on the comparative structure of other personality characteristics.

"Happiness." Figure 36 illustrates the ratings on the "happiness" scale, based on Appendix IV-C-27, Table 24. Teachers appeared, on the whole, somewhat "happier" than the "norms" and "other" adults in all countries except France. Female teachers tended to score higher in "happiness" than males, and higher than "other" females, especially in Eastern Europe. But male Soviet film teachers were rated "happiest" of all.

FIGURE 34

HIGHEST RANKING DIFFERENCES IN MEAN RATINGS OF CHARACTER TRAITS BETWEEN TEACHERS, STUDENTS, AND OTHERS; WESTERN EUROPE



T, S, O mark the mean rating of all teachers, students, and others, respectively, in relation to each other. The lowest of the three means for each trait appears in the same column so that distances can be compared. Traits are ranked in order of these distances. The letters $\overline{m}$ and $\overline{f}$ mark the mean rating of males and females within each role.

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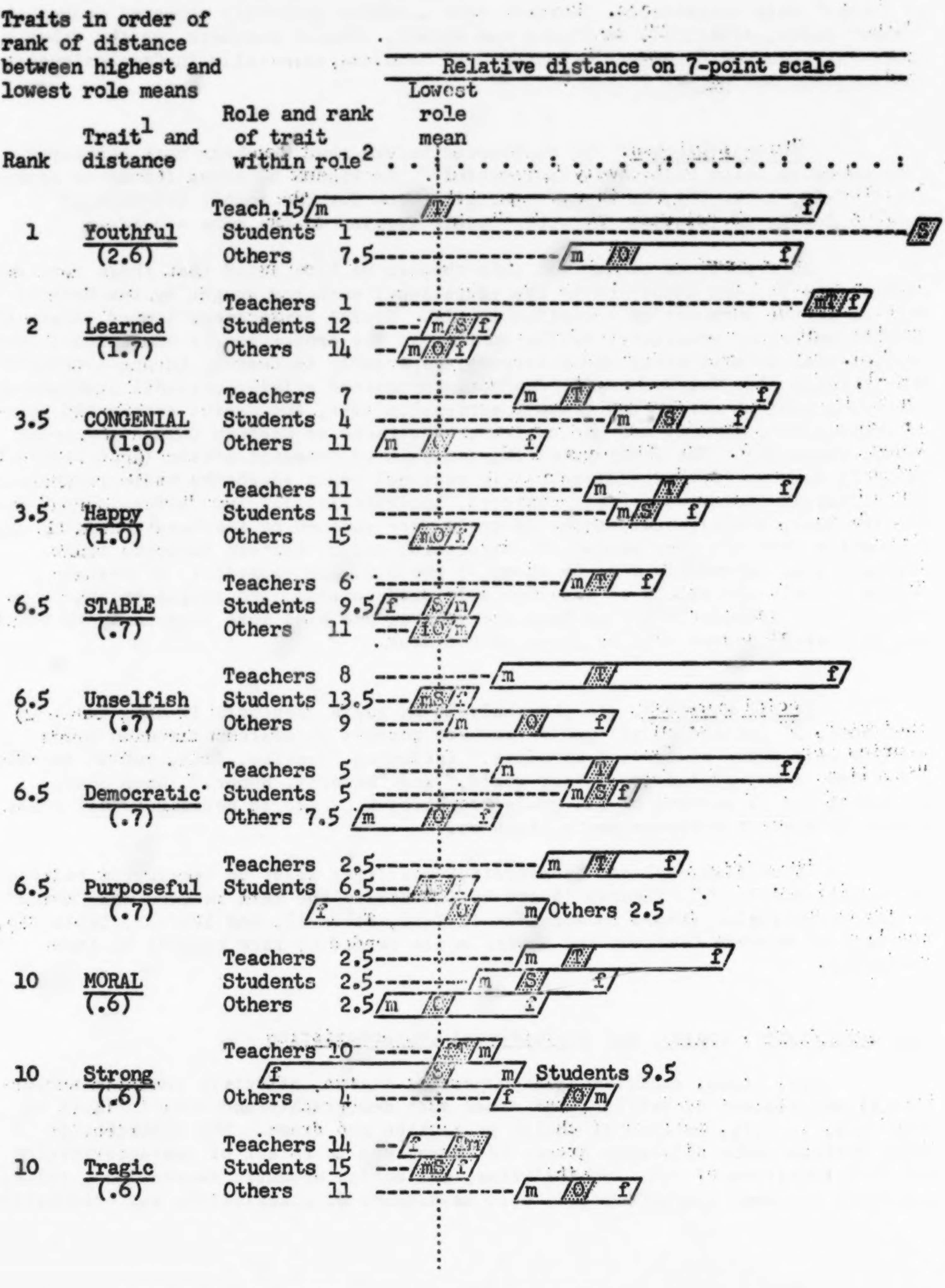
[1] Factors are capitalized.

[2] "Rank of trait within role" is the rank assigned to the means of all teachers, students, and others on each of these traits out of all 15 traits rated.

FIGURE 35

HIGHEST RANKING DIFFERENCES IN MEAN RATINGS OF CHARACTER TRAITS BETWEEN TEACHERS, STUDENTS, AND OTHERS; EASTERN EUROPE



"Strength." As Figure 37 shows (based on Appendix IV-C-22, Table 19), Soviet male teachers were also rated "strongest" in absolute terms and in relation to "other" male characters. However, male teachers generally appeared weaker than "other" males, especially in France and Poland. Female teachers, on the other hand, generally appeared "stronger" than "other" females, especially in Czechoslovakia and Hungary, but not in Poland.

"Purposefulness." We have noted before that teachers were portrayed everywhere as being relatively "purposeful." As Figure 38 shows (based on Appendix IV-C-28, Table 25), this was especially true for the female teachers of Eastern Europe in relation to "other" adult females in the same stories.

In a previous section of this chapter we have noted that there were some differences between countries in the educational purposes sought by teachers as well as in the purposes of education itself. Social advancement loomed larger and subject matter or vocational skills smaller in the proportion of educational goals in U.S. than in most other media systems, especially in Eastern Europe (Appendix V-A-1, Table 1). Yet U.S. media teachers emphasized solving personal problems and mastering subject matter and correct expression more, and useful skills and talents or service to community and nation less, than those of Eastern Europe (Appendix V-B-9, Table 14). The findings of the analysis of dramatic action (Appendix IV-E-6, Table 2) suggest further differences in personal goals sought by media teachers of the different countries. "Self-centered, individualistic" and "affectionate" (vs. intellectual, social, etc.) types of goals were pursued by teachers generally less frequently than by other groups of characters, and by Eastern European media teachers less frequently than by those of the U.S. and especially of Western Europe. Goals and values of intellectual, professional, and social relevance were pursued more frequently by teachers everywhere, and also more frequently by teachers of Eastern Europe than by those of the West.

Social morality. As the analysis of goals (Appendix IV-E-6, Table 2) indicates, 37 percent of all goals teachers pursued in Eastern European media stories were those of "social morality," including "justice, duty, public service," "idealism, a way of life, a better world," and "honesty, honor." Such goals accounted for 22 percent of all goals sought by U.S. and 19 percent of all goals sought by Western European media teachers.

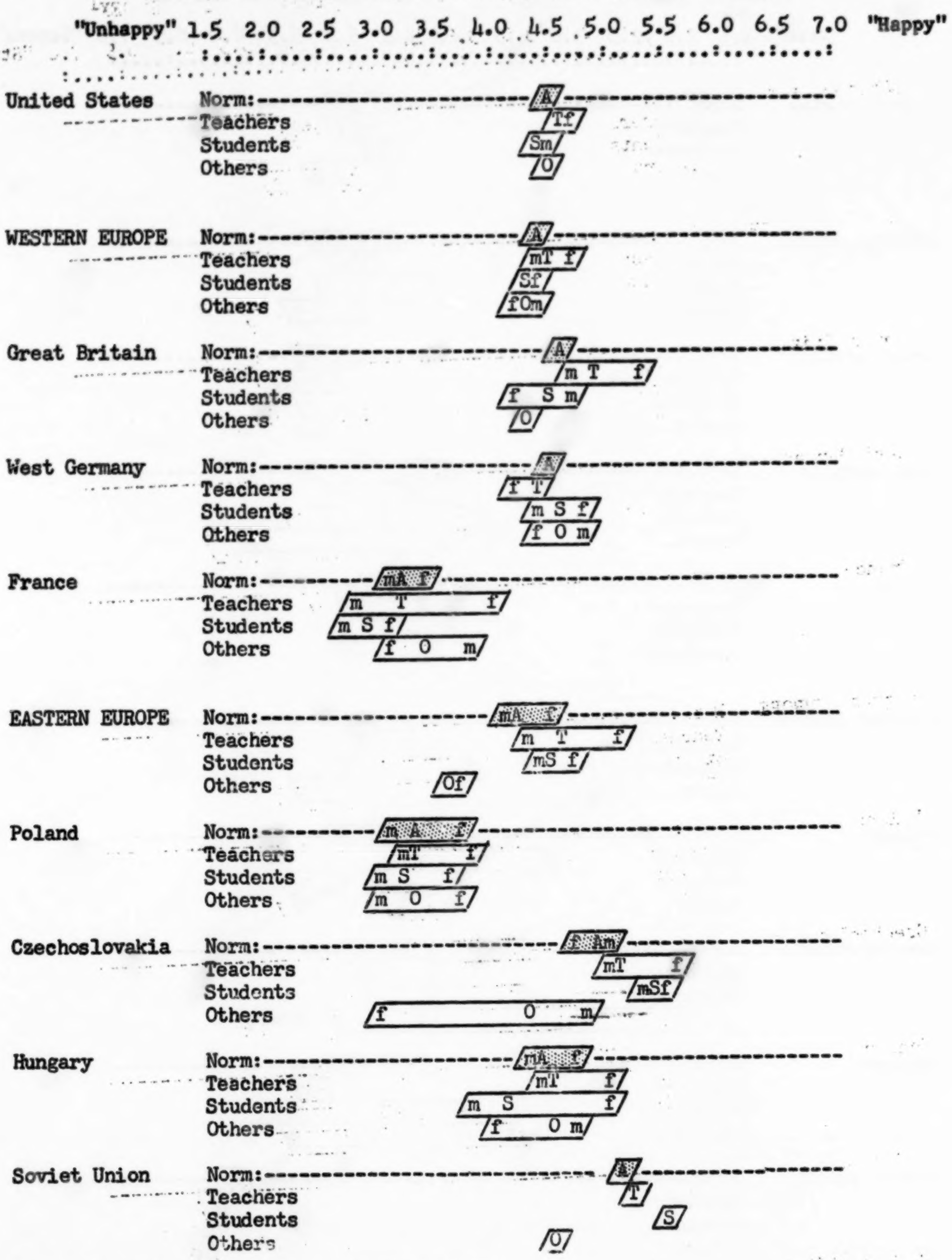
"Unselfishness" and "democratic" qualities might be considered related to "social morality." Figures 39 and 40 illustrate the mean ratings and "norms" on these two scales (based on Appendix IV-C-20, Table 17, and IV-C-25, Table 22). Teachers of Eastern European and Soviet media tended to rate highest in these qualities.

Some demographic, social, and professional characteristics

Age, class, social mobility, marital status, affective romantic success, illegal and violent activities, and other such demographic and social "facts of life" are, in fact, matters of choice in fiction and drama. The distribution of these choices among different groups of characters is an act of characterization and of delineation of role possibilities, reflecting dramatic conventions, policy, and basic cultural assumptions, as well as demands of plausibility and credibility.

FIGURE 36

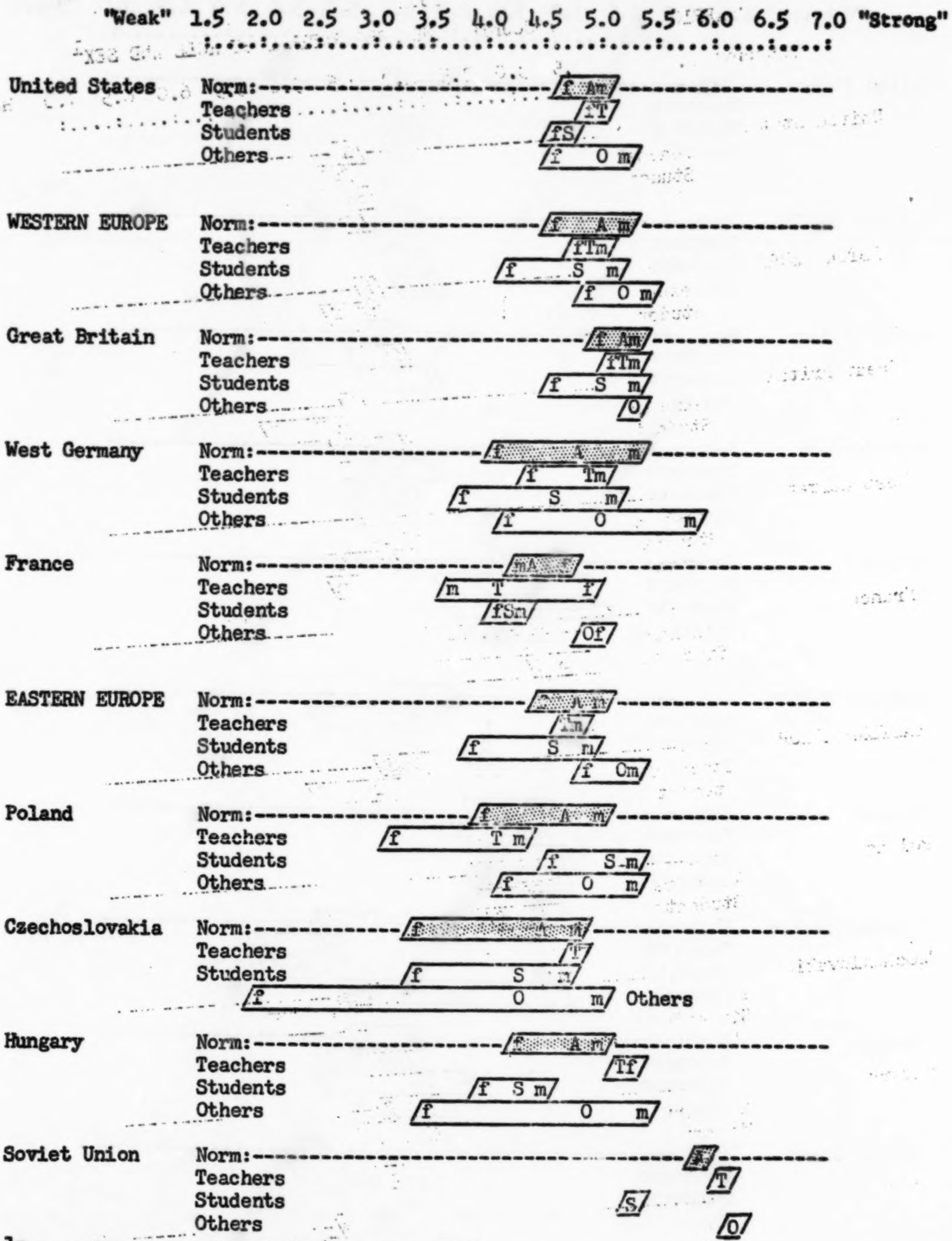
"HAPPINESS" SCALE; COUNTRY AND AREA RATINGS BY ROLE AND SEX[1]



[1] For explanation of symbols see page 6-31

FIGURE 37

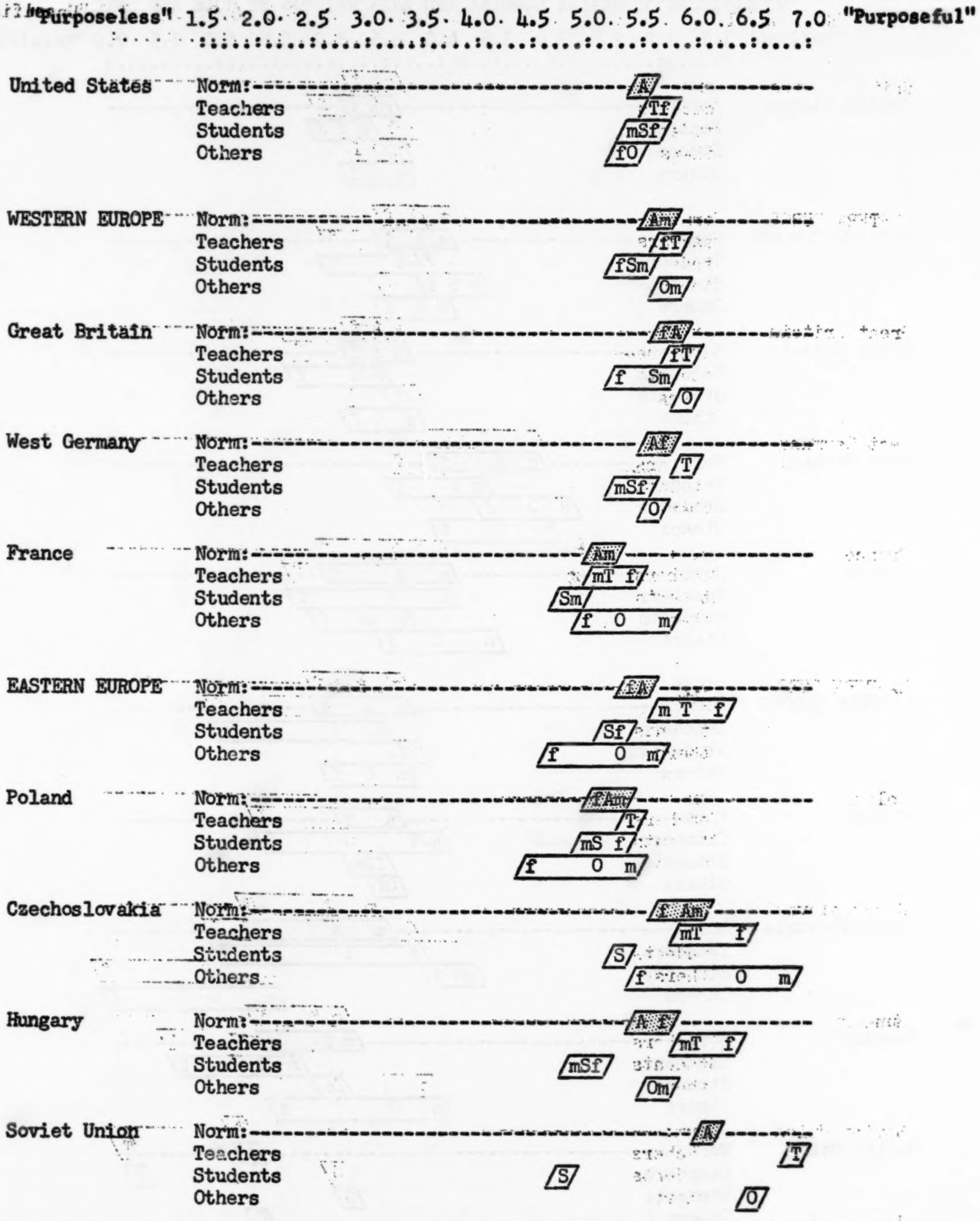
"STRENGTH" SCALE; COUNTRY AND AREA RATINGS BY ROLE AND SEX[1]



[1] For explanation of symbols see page 6-31

FIGURE 38

"PURPOSEFULNESS" SCALE; COUNTRY AND AREA RATINGS BY ROLE AND SEX[1]



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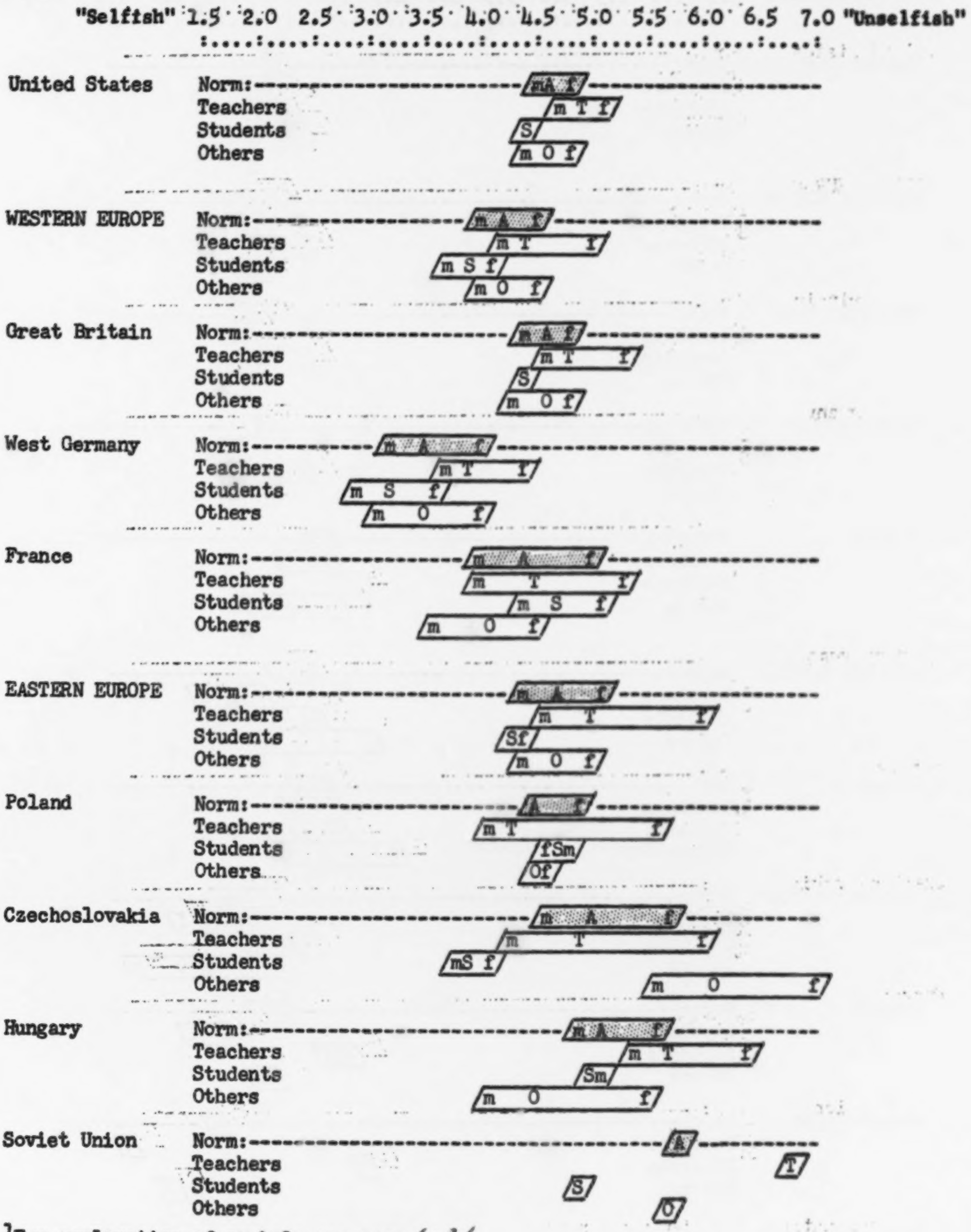
[1] For explanation of symbols see page 6-31

FIGURE 39

"UNSELFISHNESS" SCALE; COUNTRY AND AREA RATINGS BY ROLE AND SEX[1]



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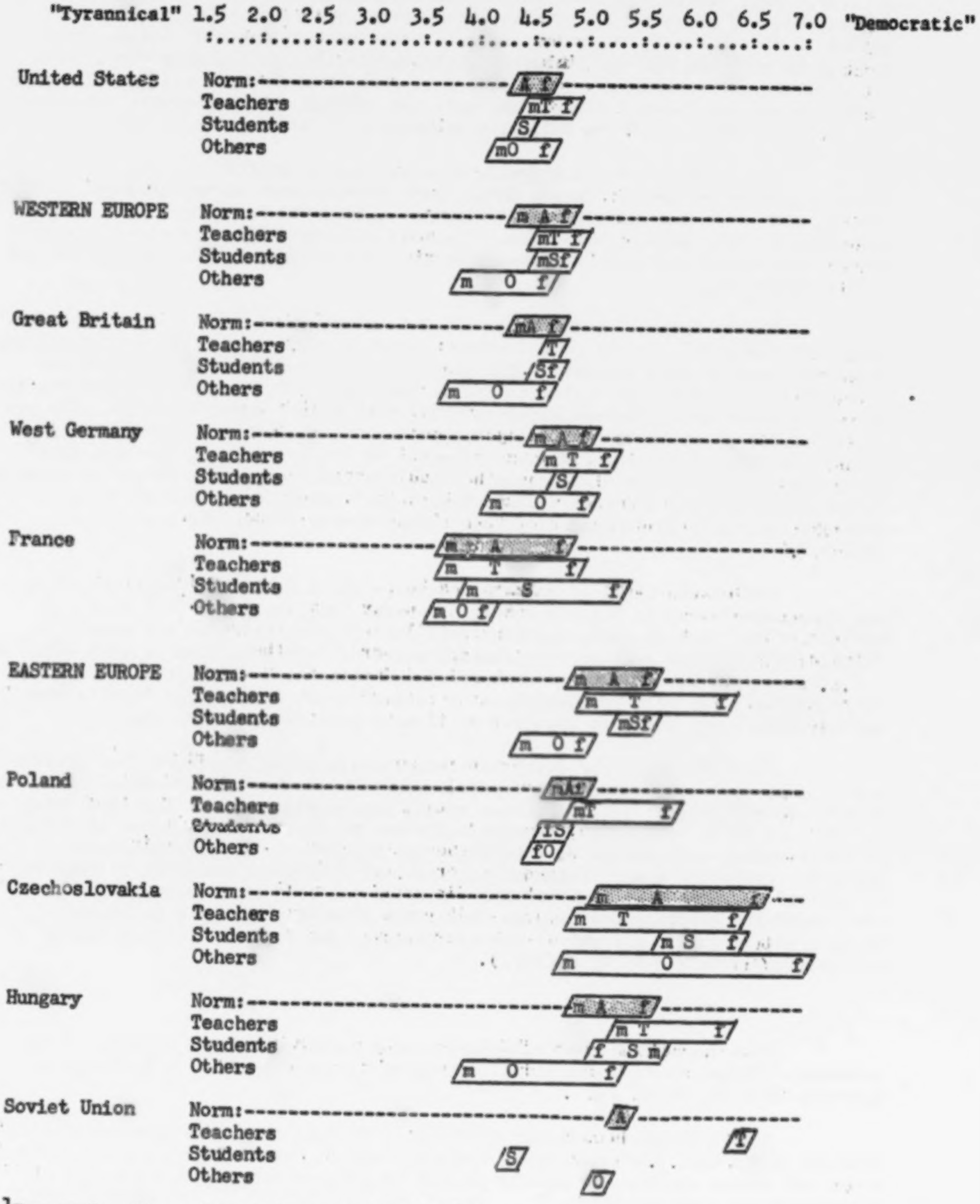
[1] For explanation of symbols see page 6-31

FIGURE 40

"DEMOCRATIC QUALITIES" SCALE; COUNTRY AND AREA RATINGS BY ROLE AND SEX[1]



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[1] For explanation of symbols see page 6-31

Age. Every analyzed character was assigned a social age category. The distribution of characters into these categories appears in Appendix IV-A-6 to 7, Tables 12 to 14. Every character was also rated on a "young-old" scale. Mean ratings by role and sex are included in the tabulations of Appendix IV-C. Also included there is a measure of relative deviation of these mean ratings from each country's own age "norm," designed to make the ratings more comparable (see Appendix IV-C-21, Table 18). The following discussion is based on these two measures.

The requirements of romantic interest and of action in drama and fiction place a premium on youth. On the other hand, professional accomplishment, status, wisdom, and power (or the ultimate failure to achieve these things) can best be portrayed in more mature characters. Teachers were generally perceived as more mature than other adults in the same stories. But there were substantial sex and role differences.

Nearly half (47 percent) of all U.S. media teachers were "young adults." Many more women (62 percent of all women teachers) than men (39 percent of all men teachers) were in this category. The proportion of "young adult" teachers was lower in West Germany and higher in France and Great Britain than in the U.S., and generally lower among Eastern European males (but higher among females). The sex differential was in favor of younger women teachers everywhere, especially in Eastern Europe. Despite the large proportion of young teachers, however, the percentage of young people among other adult characters was even larger everywhere except among Eastern European female characters. There 68 percent of female teachers, but only 50 percent of "other" adult female characters were "young adults."

Almost one-third of media teachers in the U.S. and in Western Europe, and about one-fourth in Eastern Europe, appeared "middle-aged." A larger proportion of men than of women teachers fell into this category in all areas. "Middle age" claimed a relatively smaller share of "other" adults of both sexes in U.S. and Western European media than it claimed teachers. In Eastern Europe one-fifth of women teachers but one-third of "other" women were judged "middle-aged," making young women teachers appear a still more youthful group by comparison.

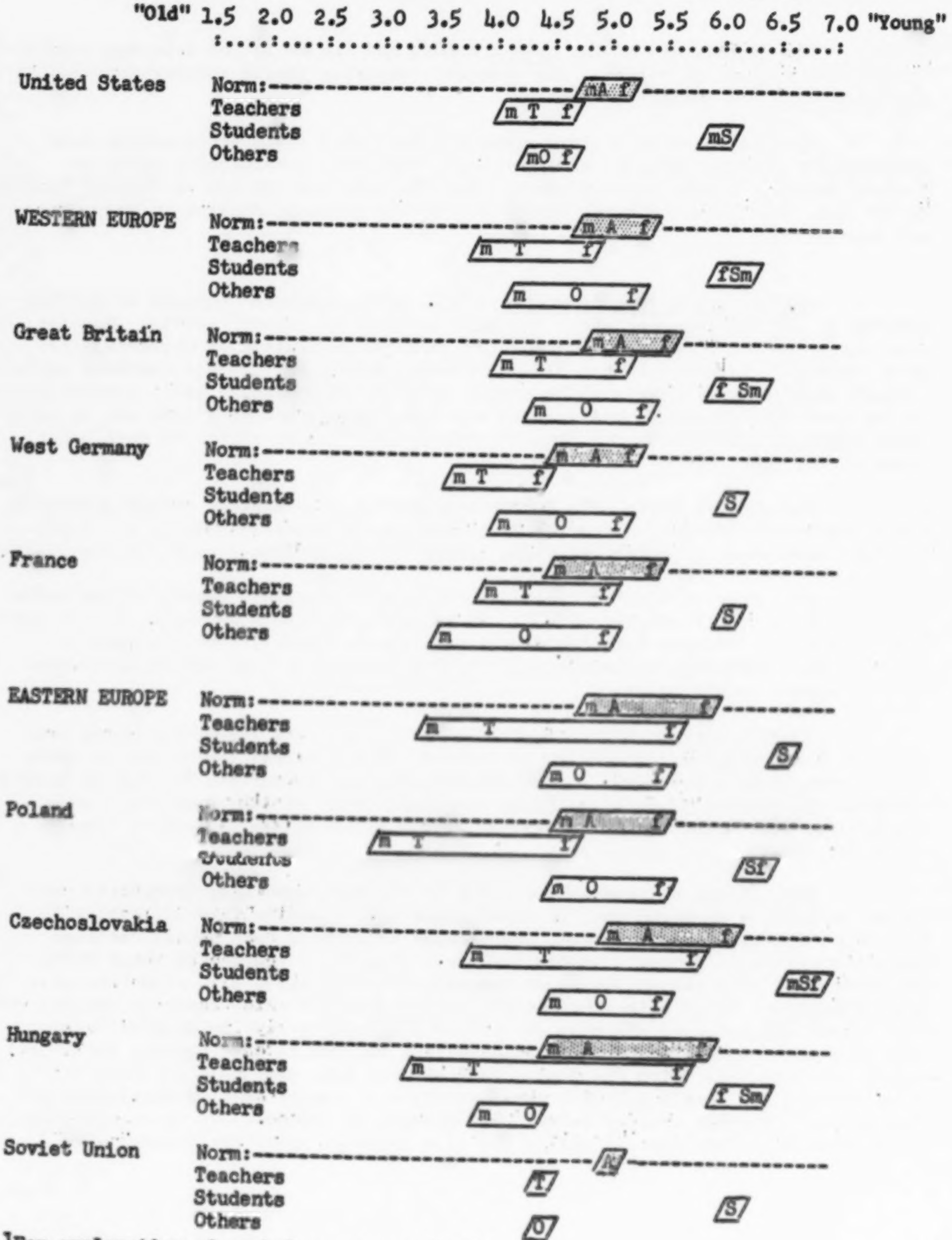
Male teachers were everywhere more likely to be portrayed "past middle age" and in "old age," than were female teachers or "other" adult males. In Eastern Europe especially, 43 percent of all male media teachers appeared "past middle age" or in "old age," but only 5 percent of female teachers and 18 percent of non-teaching male adults were in these age brackets. Another indication of what might be considered a more frequent portrayal of lifetime commitment to teaching in Eastern European than in other media stories was that retirement was given as the reason for quitting teaching in 15 percent of such portrayals in Eastern Europe, but in only 7 percent of Western European and 2 percent of U.S. media stories (Appendix V-B-9, Table 14).

Mean ratings on the "old-young" scale provided another measure of age patterns. Figure 41 is a graphic illustration of these means. It is based on Appendix IV-C-21, Table 18.

Figure 41 shows that age differences between the sexes were least pronounced in the U.S. and greatest in Eastern Europe. Male teachers seemed generally older and female teachers generally younger by greater margins in the media of Eastern Europe than elsewhere.

FIGURE 41

"YOUTHFULNESS" SCALE; COUNTRY AND AREA RATINGS BY ROLE AND SEX[1]



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[1] For explanation of symbols see page 6-31

The average age of the male teacher, and its deviation from the country "norm," was highest in Poland. The youngest composite female teacher appeared in Czechoslovakia and Hungary.

Male teachers as a group appeared older than their non-teaching male counterparts in all countries except France; they were considerably older in Eastern Europe. Female teachers were about the same average age as "other" females in the U.S. and in France; they were older by the greatest margins in West Germany and Poland.

Marital and affective status. U.S. media teachers' chances of getting married in the stories were about the same as those of "other" adults. However, more teachers were shown as unmarried (and with no indication of marriage) than were "others." Middle-aged and older teachers (nearly half of all teachers portrayed) were twice as likely to be single as their non-teaching adult counterparts in the same age brackets. Middle-aged and older female teachers (one out of every three women teachers) were six times as likely to be shown single as were other women of the same age.

The pattern in Western Europe was similar. In Eastern Europe generally fewer characters (including teachers) married in the stories; half of all women teachers were shown as unmarried young adults (Appendix IV-A-7 to 8, Tables 15-18).

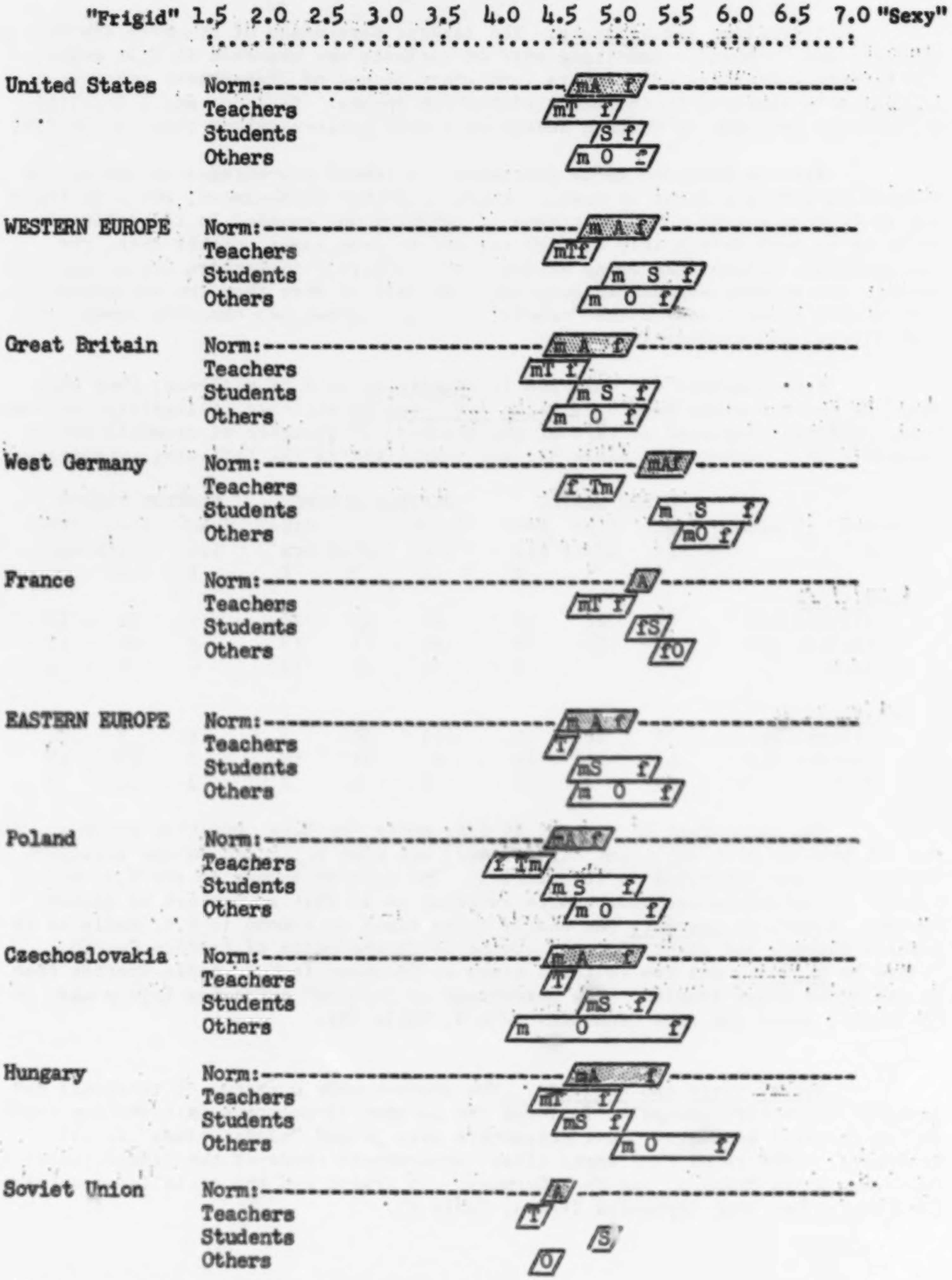
The image of the "old maid schoolteacher" certainly exists in the media of all countries: 18 percent of U.S., 28 percent of Western European, and 22 percent of Eastern European female teachers were shown "unmarried middle-aged or older." The proportion of unmarried "other" women in the same age category was only 3 percent in all areas.

"Middle-aged or older" bachelors were found less frequently among non-teaching U.S. media characters (10 percent of "other" males) than among teachers (14 percent of male teachers). In Eastern Europe the proportion of elderly bachelor teachers (31 percent of male teachers) was double that of other unmarried male characters, and larger than of unmarried female teachers (22 percent of female teachers).

Even though the romantic affairs of teachers were less frequently portrayed in Eastern European than in other media (cf. Appendix IV-D-12, Tables 10 and 11), there were no significant differences in average "sex appeal" ratings among the different groups of media teachers. Figure 42 represents these means and "norms" by role and sex (based on Appendix IV-C-24, Table 21). Teachers as a group everywhere rated below the "norm" on "sex appeal." Male teachers equaled the male "norm" and exceeded the mean of "other" male adults only in Czechoslovakia; they fell below both elsewhere (by the greatest margins in West Germany and France). Female teachers fell below the female "norms" even more than male teachers fell below theirs, but female teachers rated equal to or higher than male teachers in "sex appeal" in every country except West Germany and Poland. In these two countries their mean "sex appeal" rating was also farthest below the female "norm."

FIGURE 42

"SEX APPEAL" SCALE; COUNTRY AND AREA RATINGS BY ROLE AND SEX[1]



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[1] For explanation of symbols see page 6-31

Illegality and violence. The largest percentage of teachers (as well as students and "others") committing acts of violence was observed in U.S. media. The largest percentage of teachers (and other groups of characters) committing illegal acts appeared in the media of Western Europe. Violence and illegality appeared to coincide in Western Europe to a much greater extent than in the U.S.

Eastern European media portrayed the lowest percentages of characters committing either illegal or violent acts, or both. Furthermore, while in the U.S. and in Western Europe the percentages of teachers who engaged in illegality or violence or both were nearly as high as, and in some cases higher than, the corresponding percentages among students and "others," in Eastern Europe the percentage of teachers engaged in such acts was half or less than the corresponding percentages among students and "others," and no teacher was observed committing both illegal and violent acts.

U.S. teachers not only led in committing acts of violence; they were ahead by an even wider margin in being subjected to violence, illegality, or both. These findings, reported as part of the analysis of elements of dramatic action (Appendix IV-E, especially Table 3), are summarized in the following percentages:

Percent in each role	UNITED STATES			WESTERN EUROPE			EASTERN EUROPE		
	Teachers %	Students %	Others %	Teachers %	Students %	Others %	Teachers %	Students %	Others %
Committing									
Illegal act	12	11	16	20	20	21	6	14	12
Violent act	37	24	28	21	21	19	5	14	12
Both	8	5	8	13	14	13	-	5	6
Subjected to									
Illegal act	22	12	16	11	10	8	8	5	14
Violent act	45	31	41	21	17	15	7	18	13
Both	15	7	12	6	4	3	3	4	8

The facts that 37 percent of U.S. media teachers committed violence, and that 45 percent were subjected to violence, are also reflected in the incidence of personal injury portrayed in the stories. The risk of injury in the U.S. media "world" of education was about twice as great as in that of Western or Eastern Europe. Injury to teachers was nearly three times as common in U.S. media as in Western Europe, and eight times as common as in the media of Eastern Europe. Injury to students was two to three times as frequent in U.S. media stories than in the other areas studied. The percentage of "others" suffering injury was, on the whole, about the same (Appendix IV-A-9, Table 19).

Social class and mobility. The socio-economic status of fictional and dramatic characters generally followed the pattern of relative distribution found in the physical settings. Most characters were judged "middle class" in all countries. Members of the "upper class" outnumbered those of the "lower class" in the U.S., Great Britain, and West Germany. In France and the socialist countries the reverse was true (Appendix IV-A-4, Table 8).

Teachers were generally even more "middle class" than were students or other characters analyzed in the same groups of stories. Mass media teachers in the U.S., in France, and, to a lesser extent, in West Germany and Great Britain, were also more often shown in administrative positions (principal, headmaster, rector, etc.) than in Eastern Europe (see Appendix III-B-5, Table 7). But they were portrayed as receiving a promotion or advancing into higher positions less frequently in U.S. media than in the media of Western or Eastern Europe. Furthermore, teachers on the whole were less likely to climb the social ladder than were other adult characters in the same stories in U.S. media, but more likely to do so in most other countries, especially in Eastern Europe (Appendix IV-A-5, Table 9).

The key to teachers' social status and mobility appears to be the role and proportion of women in the occupation, and the general structure of social mobility in the stories. Men teachers in U.S. mass media advanced in status twice as frequently as did women teachers, and slightly more often than did other men (not students) in the same stories. However, "other" adult women advanced in social status three times as frequently as did women teachers.

Male students advanced most frequently, as might be expected. Women who neither taught nor studied but who often married "high" were next in mobility. Male teachers came third, "other" males fourth, and female students -- more eligible perhaps than women teachers, but not as free to advance as other women -- were fifth. In a generally upward moving fictional society women teachers climbed least.

The risk of social failure in U.S. media was relatively low. For every teacher who was demoted or suffered a loss of status (4 percent of all teachers), there were more than two who advanced. For every student who failed (2.1 percent) seven succeeded. For each "other" adult who slipped on the social ladder, three others climbed higher.

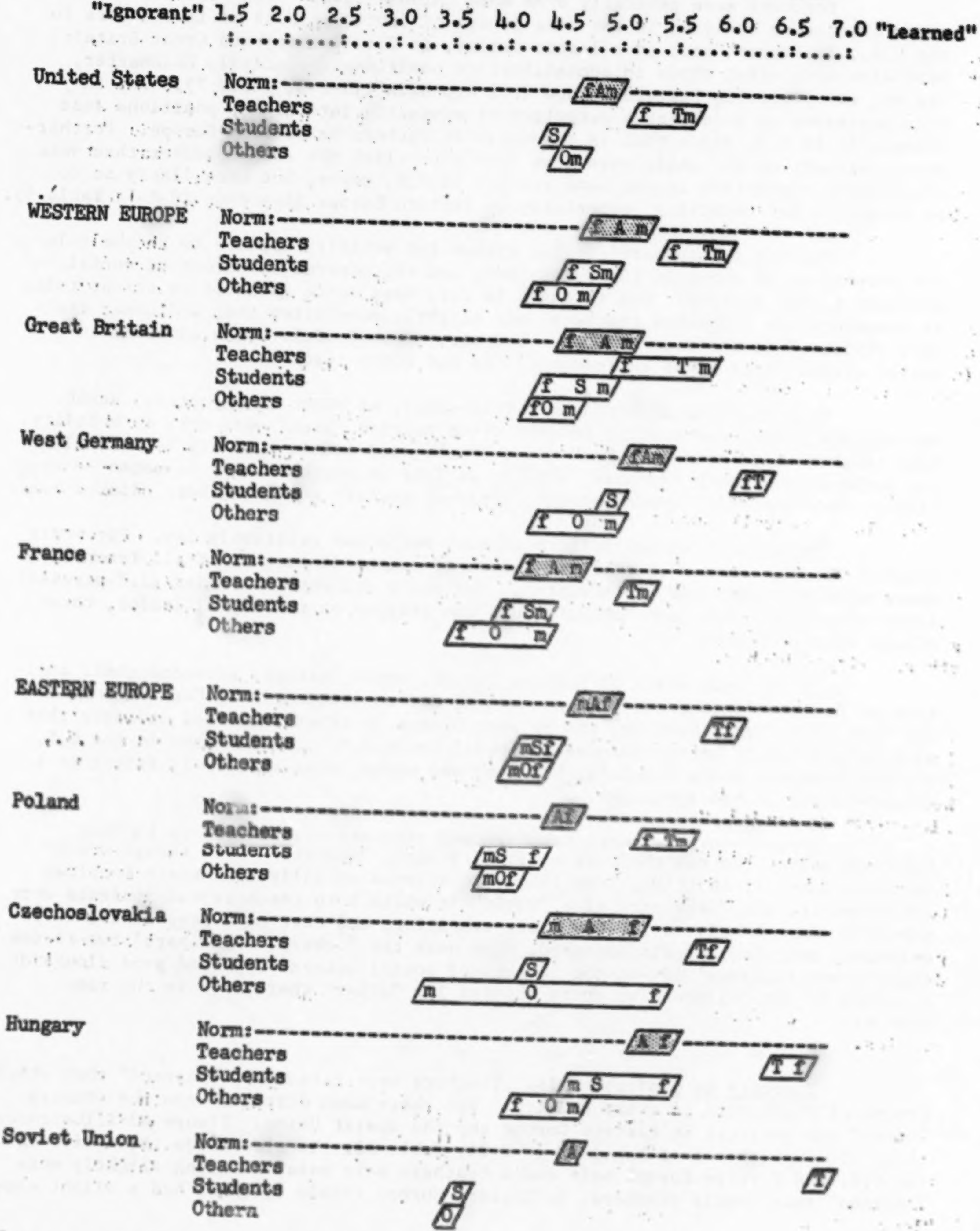
In the mass media of Western Europe, women teachers advanced their position as frequently as men teachers, even if not as frequently as "other" women. The risk of failure, however, was so much higher in other fields of endeavor that with only slightly better chances of social success in teaching than in the U.S., Western European media teachers, both men and women, rose relatively faster in a slower-moving social structure.

Upward mobility among teachers and students was highest in Eastern European media. So was the risk of failure among "others." Even though women teachers were, if anything, less likely to advance socially than their American counterparts, they were part of a "world" in which both teachers and students were generally more likely to improve their condition, and were much less likely to be defeated, degraded, or dispossessed, than were the "others." Teachers' two-to-one chances and students' six-to-one chances of social success appeared good alongside a record of two failures for every success for "other" characters in the same stories.

Teachers as professionals. Teachers were rated more "learned" than other groups of characters in every country. But their mean distance from the country "norms" was greatest in Eastern Europe and the Soviet Union. Figure 43 illustrates these findings, based on Appendix IV-C-26, Table 23. It also shows that while in the U.S. and Western Europe male media teachers were rated as being slightly more "learned" than female teachers, in Eastern Europe female teachers had a slight edge.

FIGURE 43

"LEARNEDNESS" SCALE; COUNTRY AND AREA RATINGS BY ROLE AND SEX[1]



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[1] For explanation of symbols see page 6-31

These area and sex differences were even more sharply demonstrated in response to a question about "knowledge of many subjects":

	UNITED STATES			WESTERN EUROPE			EASTERN EUROPE		
	Tot.	Males	Fem.	Tot.	Males	Fem.	Tot.	Males	Fem.
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Knows many subjects									
Percent of teachers	23	26	17	23	26	16	45	44	48
students	9	8	10	14	17	10	23	26	18
others	9	10	8	8	11	5	10	15	2

Teacher participation in community affairs and in cultural activities was highest in Eastern European stories. There was, in general, a higher degree of such participation in Eastern Europe not only among teachers but also among students and others. Eastern European media teachers and students were also most commonly perceived as being "leaders and organizers," while other characters in Eastern European media stories were the least likely to be seen in such roles (Appendix V-B-11, Table 16). The percentages of characterizations affirming the following propositions summarize the findings on community and cultural participation:

	UNITED STATES	WESTERN EUROPE	EASTERN EUROPE
	%	%	%
Participates in community affairs			
Percent of teachers	15	13	40
students	4	4	17
others	17	8	24
Participates in cultural activities			
Percent of teachers	10	13	37
students	6	8	26
others	6	8	15
A leader and organizer			
Percent of teachers	22	21	34
students	18	13	30
others	17	17	13

Why did media teachers become teachers? A "lifetime professional career" was 31 percent of all reasons indicated in U.S. media stories. A temporary occupation (e.g. until marriage) or economic need was depicted as the reason in 15 percent, and "love of children" in 6 percent of the cases, with a variety of other reasons accounting for the rest. A professional teaching career was the outstanding single reason given for becoming a teacher in all countries, but in Eastern European, British, and West German media stories the professional reasons were more common than in the U.S. (Appendix V-B-8, Table 12).

The majority of teachers was shown as enjoying students. The proportion of those who did was highest in Eastern European media, as was the proportion of stories depicting teaching itself as "an enjoyable task."

Despite the frequency of material goals, financial hardship was rarely depicted, especially in U.S. media. When it was, it was more likely to be portrayed on the secondary and higher than on the elementary level. In Western and Eastern European media the pattern was reversed. The following is the percentage of stories in each area affirming the proposition that "teachers live on meager salary":

	UNITED STATES	WESTERN EUROPE	EASTERN EUROPE
	%	%	%
Percent of all stories	7	14	9
Percent of stories related to:			
primary schools	7	28	15
secondary schools	14	15	10
higher education	10	6	1
several levels, other	4	12	--

Reasons for giving up teaching were advanced in 29 percent of U.S., 27 percent of Western European, and 14 percent of Eastern European media stories.

When teachers were shown as quitting, they rarely gave salary or the work itself as the reason. Of the great variety of reasons advanced in U.S. media, 26 percent might be summarized as the "frustrations and conflicts" of teaching. The second ranking category of U.S. reasons was marriage.

While the American media teacher was most likely to resign in frustration, the Western European was more often lost to marriage. In Eastern Europe, marriage was hardly ever shown as a cause for leaving teaching. The relatively few Eastern European media teachers shown as leaving education were most frequently fired, retired, or advanced to "higher" occupations.

Retirement was portrayed as 15 percent of all reasons for quitting teaching in Eastern Europe, 7 percent in Western Europe, and 2 percent in the U.S. On the other hand, advancement to "higher" occupations was shown as 12 percent of the reasons in Eastern Europe, 6 percent in the U.S. and 2 percent in Western Europe (Appendix V-B-8, Table 13).

The more the media were likely to present teachers dedicated to a lifetime professional career the more they were likely to depict them enjoying their students and their work, and the less likely they were to portray them as leaving the profession for economic reasons. The following figures summarize the bases for these conclusions:

	UNITED STATES %	WESTERN EUROPE %	EASTERN EUROPE %
Teaching chosen as a "lifetime professional career" (Percent of all reasons advanced for choosing occupation)	31	45	73
Teaching portrayed as an "enjoyable task" (Percent of stories)	20	23	32
Teachers inclined to give up teaching because of "inadequate salary, too much work" (Percent of reasons advanced for quitting occupation)	7	9	--

Some conclusions

The fictional and dramatic "worlds" of education in the mass media of each country were, of course, integral parts of the total imaginary "worlds" depicted by the same media. Although there were some differences in format (e.g. relatively high percentage of comedies among stories dealing with schools and teachers), our measure of thematic structure indicated the basic cultural "raw materials" of a media system strongly reflected in the portrayal of education.

Studies of thematic elements showed U.S. media generally more concerned with financial themes and those of personal injury than were other media systems, especially those of Eastern Europe, and much less concerned with historical themes (especially of the recent past) than those of Eastern Europe.

A "middle class" setting was most typical everywhere. "Upper class" scenes of wealth and power were the least frequent in the socialist media systems and, when portrayed, usually shown in an historical context. "Lower class" settings occurred most frequently in French and Eastern European media, as did themes of industry, labor, production.

As themes of financial success played a relatively more important role in U.S. media stories than in others, so the goal of social advancement, of "making good" in life, claimed the largest share of purposes in the U.S. media "world" of education. Character education (involving ideals, values, moral qualities), while important in U.S. media, dominated the distribution of educational goals in France and Poland. Subject matter "fundamentals" led the list of goals in West Germany and Czechoslovakia, and vocational training in Great Britain and Hungary.

Good citizenship and the development of democracy were shown as educational goals in Czechoslovak media more frequently than in others. Eastern European media in general portrayed successful democratic practice in the classroom three times as frequently as did those of the other areas. Eastern European media also showed teachers having a voice in decisions which affected them twice as frequently as did those of other areas. Eastern European media teachers also stressed service to community and nation as desirable activity (even though not as the principal goal of education) by even greater margins.

Only U.S., British, and French media stories showed teachers give fairly frequent emphasis to the solution of personal problems. However, Eastern European media teachers (and students) were depicted as helping and enjoying each other much more frequently than were those of other media, and Eastern European media stories depicted education as "related to real life" and as "of immediate benefit" also much more frequently than did those of other areas.

Students had most "fun" in U.S. media stories, especially in high school and college. They were shown taking examinations in Eastern European media stories much more frequently than elsewhere. Students rebelled against school life most often in British and Polish media stories. Rebellion was most likely to occur in high school in U.S. and Western European media, and on the university level in Eastern European media.

U.S. media portrayed a higher proportion of women teachers on all levels of education than did the media of other countries. U.S. media depicted a composite image of a teacher less "manly," less professional in most respects, less likely either to advance or to slip on the social ladder, more easily frustrated and victimized by the higher level of violence and illegality prevalent in her "world" of fiction and drama than was true of the media of other countries and especially of the media of Eastern Europe.

The analysis of character structure showed Soviet and Eastern European media teachers distinguished from other characters in the same stories and from media teachers in other countries in a number of personality traits and factors. Some of these, such as "morality," "unselfishness," and "democratic" qualities, along with the pursuit of intellectual and idealistic values rather than those of primarily personal, individualistic relevance, composed an image of the Eastern European media teacher outstanding in devotion to democratic principle and high standards of social morality.

CHAPTER VII

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

How citizens decide to educate their children may depend, in large part, on how they have educated themselves, especially about education itself. Much of this ongoing "education about education" may be seen as related to the general allocation of cultural resources which comprise the informal everyday "educational system" drilling children and adults in cultural orientations. The studies summarized in this report focused on the kind of "drill" that different systems of mass communications tend to offer in representing their older sibling educational institutions, systems of formal schooling, and their personnel. The ways in which press, radio, television, film, and popular magazine fiction portray, for general mass audiences, the formal educational enterprise was also seen as related to the politics of human resource allocation and development, to specific policies of reinvestment in future development, to the types of social and industrial organization prevalent in each country, and to the nature of relationships between formal education and the mass media.

The emphasis was on the American scene. A modest historical dimension and a cross-cultural comparative perspective served to illuminate certain aspects of the dynamics of mass media "education" -- through information, persuasion, or entertainment -- about the formal educational systems of the countries studied. The research included interviews and content analyses in Great Britain, France, Austria, West Germany, East Germany, Poland, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, and the Soviet Union. The limitations of this report precluded a full account of the studies conducted in each country. Only those aspects of the comparative research have been summarized which contribute to an understanding of the dynamics of the representation process under different social circumstances.

The studies varied in subject, scope, and method. Some looked for trend over time, others for patterns of content across cultures, and still others for reasons behind these trends and patterns. Some were case studies, while others dealt with a range of relevant portrayals on a comparative basis. Some inquired into news, others into drama and fiction. Interviews were conducted with over 100 knowledgeable and influential persons in the mass media and in education in the principal countries studied. Dozens of indexes, archives, and specialized collections of relevant data were searched. Content studies included the analysis of 3,327 newspaper items, 1,406 full-length feature films, radio and television drama programs, and popular magazine stories; and 2,800 fictional and dramatic characters. New methods and measures of analysis and new theoretical formulations were developed. The body of the report itself represents a summary account of selected studies and of the methodological and theoretical developments.

This chapter attempts to bring together some major findings and formulations relevant to the two sets of specific questions posed at the beginning of the research. These questions, stated on Page 1 of this report, deal with two aspects of the dynamics of image-formation. The first is related to content, i.e. to the analysis of message systems as "raw materials" of the message-image relationships central to the concerns of communications research as a social science. The second set of questions is related to the process leading to the production of message systems. The theoretical formulations underlying this approach to research can be found in Appendix I (especially pp. I-1 and I-2, and I-6 to I-10).

While this summary account draws freely on findings not necessarily included in the previous summaries, it is based mostly on the concluding portions of preceding chapters. Much of this material will, therefore, repeat what has already been stated in concluding individual studies. The principal difference is that these summaries are grouped in response to the two sets of questions specified in the plan of this research, and that they are presented in the context of interpretative comments and observations.

Content

When we ask "How do mass media systems portray teachers, schools, and education?" we ask about content, i.e. about the composition and structure of message systems. (For a more detailed set of questions, see Question No. 1 on Page 1 of this report.) Part II of this report is devoted to the presentation of the methods and quantitative findings of message system analyses included in this research. These studies were essentially of three kinds: trend studies (summarized in Chapter 1), case studies (summarized in Chapters III and V), and comparative studies (summarized in Chapters IV, V, and VI). In presenting the combined summaries of these studies, we shall first review data bearing on the relationships between policies of resource allocation expressed in cultural terms and in terms of the distribution of wealth -- e.g. proportion of Gross National Product. Then we shall draw together some major findings of the U.S. and the comparative content studies illuminating other aspects of the portrayal of teachers, schools, and education. In the next section of this chapter we shall relate summary observations concerning institutional processes producing these message systems.

Proportion of attention

An outstanding fact about modern society is its effort to develop, distribute, and use new knowledge. At the apex of the pyramid of knowledge-development stands "research and development," funds for which (from all sources) increased from $2.9 billion in 1950 to $14.8 billion in 1962.* The gross figures for scholarly publication is less impressive, partly because scientific books with small editions are not profitable to publish. The number of new scientific books (including physical, natural, medical, and social sciences) increased by less than one-third in the same ten years. The annual U.S. figure of newly published and re-published scientific books is barely above that of France, and about one-eighth of that of the U.S.S.R.*

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*HEW Trends, Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1963, p. 116. For 1950 figure, see Statistical Abstracts of the U.S., 1959, p. 538.

At the base of the knowledge-production pyramid is formal education. Some formal education has become a prerequisite for almost any type of productive life; a great deal of education is required to make contributions to knowledge. The rate at which a proportion of gross national product is reinvested in education may be a basic index of knowledge development. Some contend that this rate is also related to the growth of GNP. At any rate, both the rate of increase in gross national product, and the percentage of GNP spent for all types of formal education in the U.S. fluctuated between 3 and 5 percent in the decade 1950 to 1960. A thirty-year average of all educational expenditures as percent of GNP was 3.6 percent; the rate for 1960 was 5.0 percent.** The long-term average increase in GNP was 3.0 percent; the 1959-60 rate was 3.5 percent.***

The rate of reinvestment in education expressed in cultural terms as the proportion of informal acculturation resources (mass media content) devoted to formal education problems and personnel seems to bear some rough relationship to the above figures. A fifty-year average of 2.5 percent of all privately published books (excluding textbooks) dealt with education; the 1960 figure was 3.0 percent. Various measures (e.g. University of Wisconsin, 1949; Deutschmann, 1959) indicate between 2.0 and 6.3 percent of newspaper non-advertising space, or a rough average of 4.0 of news content devoted to education news, schools, and teachers. Our study of the New York Times Index shows that about 3.0 percent of all stories listed in the Index for 1961 and 1962 (relatively high years for the Times) dealt with teachers, schools and education.

Fifteen leading mass circulation popular magazines devoted an average of 1.9 percent of their non-advertising space to articles about education and teachers in 1961 and 1962, a decline from their highest average of 2.1 in the post-Sputnik year of 1958. Reader's Digest has been the nation's leading mass-distributor of information on education, circulating its articles devoted to that subject in a combined average of about 48 million copies a year. Time and Newsweek led in frequency of publication of education articles, and Life was first in actual amount of space devoted to such articles. However, Reader's Digest and Parent's Magazine allocated the largest proportion of their non-advertising space to education articles in recent years.

About 6.0 percent of all personalities featured on the cover of Life were associated with education. (Football, military, society, and fashion themes, in that order, dominated the associations.) This compares favorably with the percentage of educators portrayed on the cover of Time (2.2 percent in the 1950's, but 3.7 percent in the 1930's), and interviewed on the "Person to Person" television program (2.1 percent) (Winick, 1963). It is interesting to note that in two studies of occupational portrayals on television* educators ranked in the middle of the list of occupations both on frequency and on a measure of "power."

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*A Sociological Almanac (edited by Murray Gendell and Hans L. Zetterberg. New York: The Bedminster Press, 1961) pp. 18, 66-67.

**HEW Trends, op. cit., p. 60.

***A Sociological Almanac, op. cit., p. 9.

About 4.0 percent of Hollywood feature films produced from 1931 through 1960 presented significant portrayals of schools and teachers. The percentage tended to increase as the number of films produced declined in the 1950's. However, only 2.2 percent of "significant story elements" in films produced 1950-1961 was classified "educational" (ranked 11th out of 12 themes) by the Production Code Administration of the Motion Picture Association of America.

One group of comics (Puck) portrayed teachers and schools in 5.7 percent of its strips published in one year.

Trends

Our studies of trends in the allocation of attention devoted to education found evidence of further relationships to basic social and political movements in American society.

More American trade books about education were published in 1910 than at any time since, at least up to 1960 (the last year for which comparable figures were available). The number of these books, and their share of all new titles, declined in war, rose during the immediate postwar periods, then leveled off again. After the rise following World War II, the percentage of American books about education slumped to a peacetime low by 1953 while the percentage of comparable British titles reached an all-time high. The apparent postwar peak in American publishing of relevant books was 1959.

The share of news items listed under "teachers," "schools" and "education" headings in the New York Times Index similarly declined in war, rose afterwards, dropped in the early 1950's, then increased again until the late 1950's.

Trends in popular magazine attention exhibited similar fluctuations. The peak of attention came at the turn of the century. The postwar upsurge of attention was halted before it could lead to a major resource re-allocation. Studies suggested that a rise in critical tone accompanied the decline in the percentage of articles about education in the early 1950's.

While the proportions of Hollywood feature films dealing with schools and teachers showed no consistent tendency, the number of such films also declined both at the beginning and at the end of the decade of the 1950's.

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*Winick (1963) and Melvin L. DeFleur, "Occupational Roles as Portrayed on Television," Public Opinion Quarterly, 28:57-74, Spring, 1964.

The pattern suggests that the postwar rise in attention and in the demand for reform and major resource re-allocation may have provoked the reaction of 1948-53. That "era" appears to have made education a "controversial" subject, inhibited its discussion in the public media, changed the tone and complexion of its coverage, and dashed hopes of major resource re-allocation.

The volume of discussion increased again in the mid-fifties. Sputnik seems to have signaled the culmination rather than the origin of a period of searching and critical attention focused on American education in the mass media.

Reporting a convention

Our case study of the press coverage of the National Education Association's Atlantic City convention in the crucial year of 1961 (when a comprehensive school aid bill was finally defeated for many years to come) gave evidence of differential treatment accorded to national (as distinct from local) education news, and of the tendency to treat educational expenditure primarily as a "cost" to taxpayers rather than as investment.

Despite the presence of 28 reporters, wire service copy dominated national coverage. Ten wire stories alone accounted for almost half the combined circulation of all 2,240 stories. Simple "visibility" publicity of organizational significance but little relevance to issues comprised about one-third of the combined circulation of all stories.

Resolutions supporting the federal aid bill and school desegregation were the national political issues in the limelight. However, the press treatment accorded to the two issues differed considerably.

Federal aid was stressed in messages by the president of the United States and of the NEA. It was featured in news releases and a news conference, emphasized in numerous speeches during the week, discussed and voted on in the Representative Assembly. It was also the subject of what the Administration termed "probably the most important piece of domestic legislation" then pending in Congress. Desegregation, on the other hand, was mentioned in no news releases, and noted in few major speeches. There were no press conferences or other attempts to dramatize the issue. Yet when it came to reporting the convention, there were nearly as many stories filed featuring the desegregation issue as there were on the much more numerous federal aid events. When the stories arrived at the home offices, editors picked nearly seven desegregation stories for every four federal aid stories. Editors also gave front-page prominence to fifteen desegregation stories for every five federal aid stories.

Demonstration of the case for federal aid to schools was the major single effort of the convention. The kick-off news conference was prepared by nationwide mailing of factual background information indicating clear and present need. But such publicity as was given to facts of the case emphasized the mounting "burden on taxpayers" and "fears of federal control."

The pattern of press coverage tipped the odds in favor of playing up the "conflict angle" in the desegregation issue despite the virtual unanimity of the convention. Two scheduled convention speeches touched on the issue. These references were made by Negro speakers (The Rev. Robinson of New York, and the head of NEA's segregated Negro affiliates, George W. Jones) and reported only in Negro papers. But when the resolution came up on the floor, it became the biggest front-page and headline attraction of the convention.

Sensational charges against "machines" -- federal, teaching, professional -- claimed third place in the amount and prominence of press attention, and first place in editorial comment. Some of the sharpest barbs of the convention news and editorial coverage were directed against federal "machines." The specific target of most of this criticism was the U.S. Office of Education.

The convention's purpose was to call attention to professional efforts and achievements in education. Its urgent message to the nation was that joint planning and vigorous action were needed to relieve national inequalities, shortages, deficiences, and deterioration in many areas of educational opportunity and quality. The general pattern of the press coverage precluded the clear development of any such message. The NEA's approach to national problems of American education appeared to clash with news values serving commodity markets, and with the producing industries' dominant ways of construing the public interest. The pattern of institutional behavior recorded in the press coverage revealed the industry's resistance to resource-re-allocation which might weaken the structure of local controls from which the press derives most of its power and support.

Comparative studies of press coverage

The study of editorial items (excluding sports) involving teachers, schools, and education in seven U.S. metropolitan papers found that the tone of education coverage as a whole was slightly supportive (mean rating of 4.3 on a 7-point scale of "critical tendency"), with letters to the editor (3.2) and editorials (3.8) the most critical in tone, and education reporters and columnists the most supportive (4.5). Topic analysis of this material reflected the local area functions of much of the education-related coverage in the share of attention given to vital statistics and society notices and the paucity of discussion related to the general aims and values of education. The single topic scoring highest on a news value index (weighted by headline-and-lead emphasis) was integration. The group of topics ranking highest on measures of emphasis and of attention was composed of organizational and administrative items, and was related most closely to matters of school resources and finance.

National educational reform was a major area of press discussion in all countries studied except the U.S. Discussion of reform in the American press tended to appear in a fiscal or legal context usually conveying attention, stalemate, or failure.

An independently conducted case study and the comparative analysis of British press content both showed teachers' problems, needs, demands and organizations gain the lion's share of attention and emphasis. A wide range of government and teachers' union activities (including a planned teachers' strike) dominated the national coverage. Some ideological differentiation was apparent in the general coverage, and in a political crisis situation some papers reversed editorial policy to conform to the "party line."

The case study of the coverage of a criminal event implicating a teacher in the French press further explored the effects of political and ideological differentiation upon news reporting. The analysis supported the proposition that there is no fundamentally a-political or non-ideological system of news reporting. Under conditions of ideological plurality, the commercial press appeals to the broadest range of publics but weights its accounts and presents its news from a perspective close to that of the political Right and countering that of the political Left. The strongest editorial support for political solution to problems of educational (and other public) resource allocation comes, of course, from the Left.

Both Western and Eastern European papers gave educational reform and aims and values of education a great deal of attention and central position in the interrelationship of subject areas. Izvestia was unique in opening up the widest range of topics to the most critical public discussion and in enlisting the broadest participation of educators and readers in its education coverage. Subjects of highest priority in the Soviet government paper were problems of learning, study, and examinations; aims and values of education; teachers and their relations with students and community; and educational reform and resources.

Mass media drama and fiction

Hollywood films involving teachers and school were twice as likely to be comedies (20 percent) or science fiction films (11 percent) as were all other films. The five highest-ranking themes on an index of "story value" for films, TV drama, and popular magazine fiction were (1) home, marriage, family, (2) love and sex, (3) entertainment, sports, mass media, (4) violence and war, and (5) financial success or striving.

While the proportion of college films appeared to have declined over the years, U.S. media stories were still twice as likely to be associated with secondary or higher education, teachers, or students than with education on the primary level. The main goals of education in U.S. mass media drama and fiction were (1) social advancement, (2) learning subject matter, and (3) character building.

The world of fictional characters in the mass media was a generally youthful world. Media teachers were only slightly less youthful than were other adult characters in the same stories. One out of four media teachers married in the stories; the proportion was the same for other (non-teaching) adults. But media teachers on the whole were twice as likely to be shown as unmarried middle-aged or older characters as were other adults in the same stories. Women teachers were six times as likely to be shown as middle-aged (or old) spinsters as were other women characters in the same age brackets.

Media teachers were, on the whole, less likely to advance professionally than were other adult characters in the same stories. This was due mostly to the high proportion of women teachers who rarely moved up the social ladder.

A strikingly high proportion of U.S. media teachers was involved in violence, but a surprisingly small proportion of this violence was shown as being also illegal. The facts that 37 percent of U.S. media teachers committed violence, and that 45 percent were subjected to violence, were also reflected in the relatively high incidence of physical injury among teachers (as well as students).

While the majority of media teachers (58 percent) were shown as "enjoying children, students," the major single reason given for leaving the profession was the "frustrations, conflicts" of teaching. Despite the high frequency of self-centered and individualistic goals pursued by all characters, including teachers, financial hardship was rarely depicted in U.S. media.

Other characteristics of the fictional and dramatic "worlds" of education can be illuminated best in a comparative setting. These "worlds" of education in the mass media of each country studied were, of course, integral parts of the total imaginary "worlds" depicted by the same media. Although there were some differences in format (e.g. relatively high percentage of comedies among stories dealing with schools and teachers), our measure of thematic structure indicated the basic cultural "raw materials" of a media system strongly reflected in the portrayal of education.

Studies of thematic elements showed U.S. media generally more concerned with financial themes and those of personal injury than were other media systems, especially those of Eastern Europe, and much less concerned with historical themes (especially of the recent past) than those of Eastern Europe.

A "middle class" setting was most typical everywhere. "Upper class" scenes of wealth and power were the least frequent in the socialist media systems and, when portrayed, usually shown in an historical context. "Lower class" settings occurred most frequently in French and Eastern European media, as did themes of industry, labor, production.

As themes of financial success played a relatively more important role in U.S. media stories than in others, so the goal of social advancement, of "making good" in life, claimed the largest share of purposes in the U.S. media "world" of education. Character education (involving ideals, values, moral qualities), while important in U.S. media, dominated the distribution of educational goals in France and Poland. Subject matter "fundamentals" led the list of goals in West Germany and Czechoslovakia, and vocational training in Great Britain and Hungary.

Good citizenship and the development of democracy were shown as educational goals in Czechoslovak media more frequently than in others. Eastern European media in general portrayed successful democratic practice in the classroom three times as frequently as did those of the other areas. Eastern European media also showed teachers having a voice in decisions which affected them twice as frequently as did those of other areas. Eastern European media teachers also stressed service to community and nation as desirable activity (even though not as the principal goal of education) by even greater margins.

Only U.S., British, and French media stories showed teachers give fairly frequent emphasis to the solution of personal problems. However, Eastern European media teachers (and students) were depicted as helping and enjoying each other much more frequently than were those of other media, and Eastern European media stories depicted education as "related to real life" and as "of immediate benefit" also much more frequently than did those of other areas.

Students had most "fun" in U.S. media stories, especially in high school and college. They were shown taking examinations in Eastern European media stories much more frequently than elsewhere. Students rebelled against school life most often in British and Polish media stories. Rebellion was most likely to occur in high school in U.S. and Western European media, and on the university level in Eastern European media.

U.S. media portrayed a higher proportion of women teachers on all levels of education than did the media of other countries. U.S. media depicted a composite image of a teacher less "manly," less professional in most respects, less likely either to advance or to slip on the social ladder, more easily frustrated and victimized by the higher level of violence and illegality prevalent in her "world" of fiction and drama than was true of the media of other countries and especially of the media of Eastern Europe.

The analysis of character structure showed Soviet and Eastern European media teachers distinguished from other characters in the same stories and from media teachers in other countries in a number of personality traits and factors. Some of these, such as "morality," "unselfishness," and "democratic" qualities, along with the pursuit of intellectual and idealistic values rather than those of primarily personal, individualistic relevance, composed an image of the Eastern European media teacher outstanding in devotion to democratic principle and high standards of social morality.

Process

When we ask "What influences, relationships, and requirements affect the production of message systems," we inquire about process as that term was used in these studies. (See question No. 2 on Page 1 of this report.) Chapter II dealt with education reporting on large American newspapers, and suggested an approach to the institutional analysis of press-school relationships. Chapter IV presented brief descriptions of the structure of institutional relationships between education and the press in Great Britain, France, and the U.S.S.R. Chapter IV also reported the statements of educational and media personnel in these countries about the news-making process. The case studies of British and French press coverage presented in the first section of Chapter V also shed light on certain characteristics of the processes shaping the production of message systems in these societies. The conclusions of these studies will be brought together in this section.

Understanding of the process of message production is necessary to the explanation, control, and prediction of message-image relationships in a society (as these terms are discussed on Appendix Page I-7), but is, of course, no substitute for the direct investigation of message-image relationships envisaged in Phase II of this research. The present project was limited to studies of content and process of message production; it did not address itself to tactics of "image building." The reason for this was not only the limited scope of the Phase I project but also the belief that message-image relationships are basically rooted in structural and institutional characteristics of society rather than in the expertise of its communications tacticians, and that the structure of social relations ultimately determines the system of values, priorities, and allocations in every sphere of public attention and action. The outcome of our inquiries into the process of message production should not be sought, therefore, in terms of communications tactics alone. Rather, and more importantly, it may be sought in terms of a theory of the dynamics of mass media representations of other institutions. Aspects of a theory which these studies served to clarify and to support will also be made explicit.

Institutional Analysis

It has been suggested that education may be conceived broadly as the development of human resources. These studies dealt with the relationships between two institutionalized forms of that general process. One of these forms, mass communications, was seen as informal education, i.e. as the mass production and distribution of the most broadly shared common systems of messages in a culture. The other, formal education or schooling, was regarded as the older, more specialized human resource development enterprise. The two were viewed as interrelated. However, the focus of this research was on the content and process of representation by one of these institutions, the mass media, of the other, formal education.

Institutional behavior may be defined for our purposes as systematic collective operations of formal (e.g. legally sanctioned, corporate) social organizations acting as "governments" (authoritative decision-makers) in their allotted spheres of action. The observed regularities in mass media operations, reflected in the composition and structure of the message systems produced, permit consideration of mass media behavior as institutional behavior (specifically, as industrial behavior in the cultural field), and of mass media content as the product and public record of such behavior. Another "product," not so easily defined, is the cultivation in public consciousness of certain skills, understanding and outlooks, of certain "knowings" of existence, importance, and value, and of the relatedness of things. The process of producing message systems dealing with a specific area of representations and of "knowings," involving the domain of the formal educational institution, was the subject of this inquiry.

The ways in which one institution views and represents another depends on the nature of each, on the position of each in the social structure and its stake in the allocation of resources, and on the interplay between the two institutions.

Both the mass media and formal education are institutions operating in large part through the production and distribution of messages. Their policies are, therefore, of two essentially different (but related) types. One type is "political" policy -- i.e. that dealing with the institution's power position in society and its share in the allocation of resources. The other type of policy is related to message-production, as in editorial, programming, "publicity," or curriculum policy.

One of the fundamental suggestions implicit in the findings of this research was that the message-production policies of mass media, at least insofar as they involve another social institution, relate to political policies vis-a-vis the other institution. To the extent that mass communications policies reflect political (power) interests, and influence the general structure of institutional resource allocation in a society, there may be a relationship between the amounts and kinds of attention devoted by the mass media to other institutional operations and the amount of public resources (e.g. of Gross National Product) allocated to them. The evidence related in the previous section of this chapter would tend to indicate that this is a fruitful line of further investigation.

What analytical formulations can be advanced as possibly helpful to the understanding of institutional policy-making in general, and of the process leading to mass media representations of teachers and schools in particular?

Certain aspects of a theoretical perspective, suggested in Chapter II (2-38 to 2-40), may be noted and developed here. The policies governing institutional decision-making in general arise in response to a set of external or client relationships shaping institutional structures and functions, and in response to a set of hierarchical or supervisory relationships internal to the institution.

The external or client relationships are those with patrons, investors, sponsors, other groups and institutions supporting or subsidizing the institution concerned, and deriving value from this relationship. The client relationship is characterized by direct mutual dependence, a high degree of demand, and the availability of options substantially affecting the level of support of the institution.

The internal or supervisory relationships are those of chain of command, or administration, usually calculated to maximize the usefulness (and value) of the institution to its principal clients.

Communications industries such as the press, consumer magazines, and commercial broadcasting are producing organizations as are other industries. But, unlike other industries, they (1) derive little or no revenue from the sale of their products to the public (which has, therefore, no direct client relationship to these media); (2) operate as private "governments"[*] in a broader sphere of action than do other industries; even when publicly licensed, they receive the protection of the First Amendment to the Constitution, further limiting their dependence on public governmental options and pressures; and (3) are also service organizations selling "publics" (i.e. audience time and attention) to a special type of clients, the advertisers.

American (and some Western European) mass media included in this study share some client relationships with other industrial producers. But because of their unique legal position and service functions, some client relationships of these media are different from those of other business establishments.

The clients most mass media have in common with other industrial and business corporations are the major investors who supply their capital. Only about 5 percent of these are individual savers. Some 20 percent comes from banks, another 20 percent from insurance companies and pension trusts, and more than half/from undistributed profits and depreciation allowances reinvested in the corporations.[**]

The special clients of mass media, the advertisers, underwrite the bulk of operating costs in return for the time and attention of consumers concentrated in market areas providing a base for the profitable operation of both media and advertiser. The investment clientele of most media operations is highly centralized. The advertising clientele is less concentrated on the national level, but even the locally-based newspaper industry derives 22 percent of its advertising revenues from national advertisers (100 of whom provide nearly half of the total national support).[***]

Despite a degree of national clientele and support far exceeding that of public education, the media share with their clients a stake in decentralized public policy-making -- i.e. in a system of "local control" -- especially as it affects the allocation of public resources. This institutional stake rests both on considerations of power and on the localization of certain marketing functions.

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[*] A Sociological Almanac for the United States, (op. cit. p. 6) estimates that some 300,000 manufacturing establishments fall in the category of "large private organizations /with/ their own 'governments' within the framework set by the laws issued by the public ones." (p. 6.)

[**] A Sociological Almanac, op. cit., p. 11.

[***] Newspapers, 1963. A Presentation by the American Newspaper Publishers Association Before the Antitrust Subcommittee of the House Judiciary Committee, 1963, p. 147, and Advertising Age, annual tabulations, e.g. August 28, 1961.

The newspaper's stake in the system of local control, for example, stems from its client relationships and functions. No paper is sustained by selling information, or even entertainment, to its readers. The principal sustaining service of the newspaper is the creation and cultivation of a reading public of consumers concentrated in a market area. The "quality" and quantity of readers as consumers determine the value and price of this service. These market functions require the newspaper to attract readers by amusing, exciting, provoking, and selling, as well as informing them. These relationships and functions also shape the overall approach of the newspaper to other institutions and events, and affect the kind of attention it will pay to different publics. News and views are selected not only to be of broad general appeal but also to be of relevance and usefulness to the system of local controls in which the press and its public of clients wield maximum influence.

The school system is the largest public enterprise in most communities. It is a principal user of local taxes, goods, and services. The quality and quantity of its services are closely related to the income level of the neighborhood and to the location of its clients -- whose option is limited -- on the rungs of the community power ladder. In virtually reproducing the income and status hierarchy of the local community, the American school is a prime example of the financial and political effects of local control. The supervisory relationships within the institution are increasingly strained by the conflicting demands of the established community powers on one hand, and of other client groups pressing for an equalization of services on the other, while local resources are strained to their limits.

The local orientation of the American daily paper assures a fair amount of community school news, and makes the newspaper sensitive to local organizational interests, movements, and affairs. Its controlling institutional relations alert the press to any challenge to its prerogative to select and shape information by its own criteria of relevance to its own functions and publics. National agencies, organizations, and movements in education are usually perceived as special pleaders threatening the structure of local influence and control -- a structure in which both school and press have a vital and at least partly conflicting interest.

Our studies found that with the increasing awareness of the centrality of educational processes in modern societies, there has been much speculation about a "Boom on the School Beat" on American newspapers. However, the celebrated "boom" appears to have been more a sign of recognition and "professionalization" than a rise in the proportion of editorial employees holding schoo news assignments on American daily papers. The time, duties, and status of the assignments vary greatly. Mobility on the job is generally high. The "hard news, local angle" policy sets the style of reporting on most papers.

The conclusion of our interviews and of other studies summarized in Chapter II was that the average reporter on the school beat of large American newspapers is an earnest and hard-working newsman. (His bylined copy was rated as the most supportive in tone of all types of education-related items in our study of seven metropolitan U.S. daily papers.) He is impressed with the significance of his assignment even if still somewhat restive about his (or her) prestige in the newsroom. He receives more time and support to do a better job than ten years ago but is still harassed and short-handed. He believes that his point of view, which is generally that of his management, represents the approach of the majority of lay citizens and taxpayers -- or at least of those who "count."

Newsmen's views, schoolmen's observations, and the literature in the field of press-school relations suggest that newspapers are most sensitive to two types of challenge to this structure of local control. One is further professionalization and organization in the education field, making that vast public enterprise more independent of local direction and supervision. The other is any re-allocation of resources which might at least temporarily upset the present bases of newspaper and other business operations.

Professionalization means greater autonomy and self-direction governed by social purpose and economic self-interest. The avenues to professionalization in education are more intensive and cohesive teacher training programs and militant teacher organization especially on the national level -- both areas of frequent tension and conflict between schoolmen, newsmen, and community power groups.

Movements toward equalization of resources range from national participation in educational financing (such as "federal aid," and the strengthening of the now relatively powerless U.S. Office of Education) to school integration. While the ultimate effects of such movements may be recognized by many as both necessary and desirable, the short-run consequences are perceived as disturbing the established order of things.

There is, of course, an area of common interest shared by all major institutions in the same society. However, the interpretation of the "common interest," and definitions of success will differ whenever the relationships shaping the social role and policies of an institution differ from those of another. Mass media and schools are both cultural operations of the same society, and are subject to many of the same influences. But mass media as private industrial organizations responsive to investment and advertising clients have a stake in the allocation of resources which is not identical with that of the public educational enterprise. This is not to say, of course, that the mass media do not also have a stake in public education. But to the extent that there is an at least partial divergence of power goals and purposes, the "emphases and omissions" in the media's representation of the educational enterprise will, as we have found, reflect such divergence, and will tend to affect educational development and public decision-making accordingly.

Comparative dimensions

It would be misleading, however, to attribute all mass media performance only to the specialized industrial and service relationships governing major policy-making. Mass media are not only industrial organizations serving investment clients and consumer markets. They are also producers and distributors of the most broadly shared common systems of messages in society. They provide the common currency of social interaction among groups so large that they cannot interact face-to-face. Thus they make collective thinking and action possible across wide distances of time and space. They provide the cultural climate in which public decision-making goes on.

The institutional constraints on mass media decision-making are, thus, of four general kinds. First are the constraints imposed by the imperatives of the investment-client relationships and the service requirements of the advertiser-client relationships. Second are the demands imposed by the necessity for cultivating and gratifying some expectations and desires of the consuming public. Third is the leverage, if any, that can be exerted by the institution, organization, group, or person selected for attention (or neglect) by the media. And fourth are constraints imposed by general social (and legal) obligations to serve some normative functions and to avoid posing major threats to the prevailing moral-political outlook and order.

Although these constraints relate to the allocation of attention (and of resources) in different and sometimes conflicting ways, their joint operation adds up to a pattern distinctive of the mass communications process of a society. The comparative dimensions of this research help to illuminate some alternatives in this pattern.

The studies in three countries summarized in this report presented opportunities for comparison and contrast with each other and with the United States. Education is conceived in all three countries as a primarily national responsibility, and educational policy-making as an overtly political process. The range and functions of local responsibilities vary. The press of all three countries is largely dominated by national organs. Sharp political and ideological differentiation is cultivated on a mass scale in France and to a lesser extent (but still more than in the U.S.) in England, but is submerged in the national perspective in the Soviet Union. Relationships between education and the press range from informal contacts between independent structures in the West to formal organizational interlocking in the East. Educational reform attracts much attention in all three countries, but the methods vary from open political contest to comprehensive planning and directed transformation.

Great Britain. In England and Wales major resource decisions in education are largely centralized, although administrative, personnel, and curriculum policies are mostly locally determined. A relatively high degree of educational freedom and autonomy, protected by national power, does not mean that the education profession enjoys abundant support or a robust institutional position. The national scope of institutional relationships means that educational decision-making is an integral part of the national political process. Education is a major issue in platforms and campaigns, a frequent subject of Parliamentary debate and inquiry, and a focal point of social and political -- as well as educational -- reform movements.

Education thus plays an important role in the national press. The client relationships of the dominant newspapers are also national in scope. They center in political parties and in the major industrial concentrations. Since the "Northcliff revolution" at the turn of the century, the British press has largely completed the transition from party to commercial press without, however, giving up political orientation.

The major centers of communication activity involving education in Great Britain are the Ministry of Education, the National Union of Teachers, the largest Local Education Authorities, the broadcasting networks, and the national newspapers. The Ministry of Education has a clearly defined financial role well recognized by the national press and apparently not considered much of a threat to private economic and other institutional interests.

Also, the National Union of Teachers is generally recognized -- although not necessarily approved -- as the major voice speaking for teachers and education. The N.U.T. is able to stimulate Parliamentary activity, mobilize teacher support, and focus national attention on educational and cultural problems. Its difficulties, however, are similar to those of its American counterparts. N.U.T. publicists stressed the need for public relations in a public service profession, the problem of tension and suspicion between newsmen and schoolmen, the organizational competition for space in the national press, the conflict between informational and commercial requirements of news treatment, and the necessity to adjust to the requirements of the press.

France. The design of French public education is centralized blueprint with both client and supervisory relationships leading to the seat of national power in Paris. Teacher and student organizations maintain their tradition of militant political activity dating back to the French revolution.

The postwar French press emerged with temporary financial support from the national government. Within ten years, however, economic pressures cut the number of Paris dailies to half the 1946 figure. The transition from a primarily party or "opinion" press to a largely commercial or "information" press was underway.

Today both types of papers exist side-by-side. Their positions on the left vs. right-wing political spectrum and on the special readership vs. mass-audience-appeal commercial continuum largely determine their relationship to other institutions and their approaches to the reporting of events.

The Ministry of Education, the Union of Teachers and the Union of Students are major public organizations interacting with the ideologically and politically differentiated organs of the press. With client relationships of the educational system uneasily centered in the national government and those of the press differentiated along the political and the commercial dimensions, a complex pattern of interaction is characteristic of the structure of school-press relationships in France. (The case study reported in Chapter V illuminates the effects of differential political and ideological perspectives upon the treatment of news within the French press system.)

U.S.S.R. In the Soviet Union, as in the United States, a single overall perspective rather than sharp ideological differentiation, is characteristic of both education and the press. However, unlike in the other countries, comprehensive planning, public management, and directed change are dominant features of Soviet institutional life. Client relationships center in major public organizations. Resource-allocation functions are performed by government planning committees, regional economic councils, and the State Planning Commission. These organizations collect recommendations from all enterprises, reconcile local and national needs and special interests, allocate monies and set goals in accordance with priorities embodied in Party programs and approved by the Supreme Soviet.

Major mass organizations, including the Communist Party, have specialized branches working with the public schools and conducting educational programs of their own. The organs of the government, the Party, and other mass organizations (which make up the press of the country) further promote educational objectives and planning. Interlocking responsibilities and joint planning thus relate all major organizations to each other and to the public schools.

As all mass organizations overlap in their educational concerns and interest in the public schools, all major organs have clearly recognized educational functions and departments. In line with recent educational reforms and with the ongoing transformation of the Soviet press itself, broad participation, mass "involvement," and an active hand in tackling problems of "life and work" are the major educational tasks of the press. Educators and other readers, including parents and students, write much of the educational "coverage," a large proportion of which consists of critical letters, exchanges of experience with educational reform and innovation, and reports of educational "trouble-shooting." Education editors plan special campaigns, events, conferences, etc., jointly with the educational organizations. The themes of stimulating initiative and joint press-school activity in planning and carrying out common tasks ran through our interviews.

Other media. Similar analyses were conducted in film, broadcast, and magazine production in the countries included in the project. The details of these analyses, to be reported elsewhere, add little to an understanding of the process of message-production beyond what has been suggested in the press studies. The major client relationships of the motion picture industry in the West are with domestic and international financing organizations. In Eastern Europe and the Soviet Union they are with state economic planners, public organizations, Ministries of Culture. Commercial, political, and organizational pressures and the threat or reality of government censorship forced all movie industries to "internalize" their most vital requirements in the form of "self regulation." Formal or informal codes either supplant or supplement outside censorship in the West. In Eastern Europe, Artistic Councils composed of delegates from movie studios and other public organizations (including teachers' unions) exercise supervisory functions over production and planning.

The broadcasting industry operates under the most sensitive and intricate constraints of all mass media. In Great Britain public corporate standing provides relative insulation from both direct client involvement and direct government control. In the countries of Eastern Europe, the close integration of broadcasting with the public organizational life and the increasing effort to involve large numbers of the audience in programming make radio and television perform functions similar to those described in our discussion of the Soviet press.

The "organizing" functions and "public forum" policies of Soviet and Eastern European media, combined with their single ideological basis for client support, and with intense public expectations of economic democracy and high standards of social morality, tend to place them at the service of a cultural revolution. Among the stated aims of this revolution are a "new morality" and the search for and application of new knowledge. The Soviets publicly declare educational and cultural expenditures an increasingly decisive type of investment in an advanced stage of industrial development. Their media do not portray education as a "burden on the taxpayer" or even on collective enterprise. Instead they tend to press for educational investment up to (and by some indications beyond) the limits of national ability, and to portray more of the heroic aspects of educational leadership and of teachers' selfless devotion to principle. In this effort, they can take full advantage of the European legacy of intellectual leadership in nationalistic, revolutionary, and proletarian movements, a legacy in which teachers have had a prominent place for two centuries.

*

Our studies did not inquire into the esthetic values, believability, or desirability, of the kind of "drill" in cultural orientations which different systems of mass communications offer in their representations of teachers, schools, and education. We did not attempt to relate the findings to specific and well-known teacher-figures and school-themes in the popular cultures studied. Nor did we try to assess these images in relation to educational or broader cultural goals, or to such possible values as the "humanization" of the teacher figure and the "familiarization" of the learning process through non-deferential treatment. These and other aspects of the message-image relationships involved, and their relevance to social objectives, remain to be investigated.

The studies focused on the analysis of message-systems, on the institutional processes leading to configurations of content, and on the possible bearing of these products and processes on the allocation of public resources. The major theoretical implications of these studies relate to institutional dynamics affecting mass cultural representations of education in different societies.

To be sure, no public government dictates cultural policy in societies, such as the United States, which delegate broad public powers to private "governments" -- hundreds of thousands of individual entrepreneurs, corporations, and their executives. These private "governments" (so-called because they make binding, authoritative decisions within their allotted spheres of action) make presumably individual choices of what to select and produce for popular consumption, and how to allocate cultural resources at their command. They make these decisions presumably on the basis of individual assumptions about what is "news," what makes a "good story," what is "entertaining," and, in general, what is interesting, important, and profitable.

Yet studies of the comparative patterns and outcomes of these decisions indicate that institutional constraints on presumably individual decision-making may "dictate" cultural policy in ways as regular and systematic as public governments do elsewhere, even if, perhaps, in different areas of concern.

The first of these constraints are imposed by the client relationships of the public media. Client institutions -- whether private investors, advertisers, organizations, political parties, or public governments -- expect mass media to collect and disseminate information pertinent to their purposes, and to cultivate perspectives congenial to their resource requirements, functions, and outlooks. In countries where a single ideological outlook governs client relationships and dominates media perspectives, as in the U.S. and the U.S.S.R., there is little media competition for alternative ways of cultivating or satisfying public expectations. The media call the tune for public education either because they are "free" of binding institutional obligations to it (as in the U.S.) or because they are organs of interlocking public organizations bound to public education by design and function (as in the U.S.S.R.). Thus it is possible to have little or no public discussion of basic educational aims, or of the need for major educational reforms involving client stakes in local control; it is also possible to have critical attention serve as a brake on overall planning, on militant organization, and on the re-allocation of public resources. This appears to have been the American pattern. Or it is possible to have broad public discussion of fundamental educational aims and of educational reform dominate public discussion, and to serve client purposes in achieving planned change without much consideration of alternatives. This has been the Soviet pattern.

Studies of the institutional process in Great Britain and France found some ideological differentiation cultivated on a mass scale through the existence of a more pluralistic political press and through both private and public governmental clientele for mass media. In this ideologically differentiated and competitive context education could find a more independent and militant voice, and participate in national decision-making on a level of relative equality with other centralized institutional interests.

Given the American structure, there is little likelihood of organized education -- private or public -- entering into client relationship with mass media either directly or through a differentiated ideological or political affiliation. The other institutional constraints, however, afford the opportunity of cultivating relationships and exercising some leverage on mass media representations. The public relations and public information functions of educational institutions maintain important links to the public media which assure at least routine visibility of local, and occasionally national needs. Systems of educational advisory panels, such as those established to serve the producers of the Mr. Novak television series (Gerbner, 1963, C), can be helpful without encroaching on the artistic and commercial prerogatives of the media. Direct community participation and channels of information help cultivate public understanding and expectations of educational institutions which affect both media representations and, as the Stanford studies have shown (Carter, 1962, 1960), voting behavior. And, finally, mass media obligations to serve normative social functions may be expected to increase awareness of and sensitivity to educational imperatives of our times, even if such awareness conflicts with some client interests vested in short-range power considerations.

Many questions raised but not answered in these studies deserve further investigation. Among these are the precise nature of the relationship, if any, between the allocation of mass media attention and of national income to institutional operations; further analyses of the media decision-making process in different societies; the role of educational planning and public relations in the institutional process; the effects of the portrayals of teachers and schools upon popular conceptions and upon voting and other public policy-related behavior. It should also be noted that some findings and formulations of this research call for a re-examination of still dominant 18th century theories of the role of the "press" and of ordinary tactics of public information, entertainment, and enlightenment in democratic society.

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PART II: APPENDIXES

The series of studies which composed this project varied widely in subject, scope, and method. They were held together by the overall purpose of the research, and by certain theoretical considerations. Some of the studies provided opportunities to test assumptions and develop techniques in communications research. Most of the analyses yielded more information of substantial interest than could be discussed in a single report.

The Appendixes which form Part II present such material of primarily professional research interest. A general account of the project and of its basic theoretical and methodological orientation is given in Appendix I. Subsequent Appendixes present the methodology of individual studies, tabulations resulting from the analyses, and the major instruments of analysis. Information necessary for the reading of the tabulations can be found in the introductions to the Appendixes or in footnotes accompanying the Tables.

Appendix

CONTENTS OF PART II

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Appendix I

PURPOSES, HISTORY, AND THEORY OF THE RESEARCH

The project reported here has implications for communications research as a social science, as well as for education as a social enterprise. This section deals briefly with the purposes and conception of the project and its place in communications research. The next division of this Appendix reports the history, general conduct, and scope of the project. The final section presents a further discussion of theoretical assumptions and implications.

Communication is interaction through message systems. A central concern of communications research as social science is the production, organization, composition, structure, and distribution of message systems in society. This concern involves basic questions of popular culture and of public policy in popular culture, especially in societies where the mass-production of message systems provides centrally produced and widely distributed common currencies of social interaction. The questions are necessarily those of social science. As the findings of this study amply testify, practitioners of the arts and industries of communications, policy-makers in business or government, historians, critics, participants and observers of popular culture -- no matter how perceptive and well-informed -- simply do not have systematic, objective, and reliable information about the overall operation of the cultural processes in which they -- and all of us -- live and work.

The questions involved in such research deal with the overall operation of cultural processes which mark modern industrial societies with some of their most distinctive characteristics.

How is the cultural production system organized? What patterns of choices does it make available? In what proportions, and with what kinds and degrees of attention, emphasis, and appeal does it weight these choices? What perspectives on society and its institutions, on values in life, and on life itself, does it cultivate?

A quest for answers to such questions motivated these studies. The portrayal of education in the mass media was both the focus of the investigation and a prism through which a significant range of the spectrum of general cultural processes and perspectives could be seen and assessed.

The idea for the project stemmed from a belief that there is a significant connection between the everyday popular culture of a society and its formal educational institutions. The chief agencies of popular culture in industrial societies are the mass media; the chief agencies of formal education are the schools. The connections between the two, it was felt, might be investigated by inquiring into the ways in which one sees and depicts the other.

A number of specific questions arose from that basic idea and led to the development of the plan for the research. The questions underlying the conception of this project were these: How do mass media, informal educational agencies of industrial culture, view and present the formal educational enterprise? What does a system of social and industrial organization have to do with shaping the media's approach to public education? Is the connection between popular culture and public education different in different societies? What kinds of perspectives about teachers, students, schools, and learning itself -- and through these things about society, values, and life in general -- do mass media systems cultivate in different cultures? Could we gain some understanding of educational problems in a society by looking at teachers, students, schools, and learning through the eyes of its mass media -- the way most people see them most often? And could we also gain in our understanding of mass media functions and popular cultural processes at the same time?

It was not the purpose of this research to study how different individuals or audiences select and interpret what their cultures make available to them. The main aim was to examine what the mass media systems of different societies choose to make available for people to select and interpret. The analysis did not directly touch upon audience tastes, preferences, opinions. It is the task of the second phase of this research, yet to be undertaken, to inquire into images and attitudes of people exposed to the message systems examined in the studies. The information collected for this research is representative of cultural tendencies and processes in different types of social and cultural systems; it is not necessarily representative of all aspects of the national variations among countries sharing the same general type of system, nor of audiences involved in these processes.

The study of the popular cultural process and the study of people involved in that process are complementary to each other. One assumption guiding this research, discussed in Appendix I-B, was that the former is a separate and prior step in communications research, and gives meaning to findings derived from the latter. For that reason, the present findings are considered conclusive within the limits of the scope and design of these studies. The projected studies of audience conceptions should add another dimension to an understanding of the communication process, as interpreted in the light of the present findings. Just as a study of navigation patterns must take into account -- but cannot define -- the winds and currents of a region, the study of audience perceptions and conceptions may contribute to, but does not replace, an investigation of the "winds and currents" of cultural climates.

HISTORY, SCOPE, AND CONDUCT OF THE STUDIES

The original plan called for a two-year comparative analysis of the portrayal of education in the mass media of three countries, along with studies of media policies and professional relationships affecting the portrayals. The countries were to be the United States and one country each from Western Europe and from Eastern Europe, if cooperation and assistance for such research could be secured.

The research began in May, 1960. The investigator visited university research centers, mass media organizations, government officials concerned with education and with media, and educational associations in Europe. It soon became apparent that there were no major obstacles, at least in principle, to securing cooperation, enlisting research assistance, and arranging for the necessary interviews in any country, East or West. Consequently, the comparative base of the study was broadened. Through several subsequent research trips nine countries were included in the research to represent different national characteristics of the general systems of educational and media organization prevalent in Western and in Eastern Europe. The expanded scope and amount of information extended the project into 1963. This report was completed at the end of that year.

The conduct of the research revolved around the three major objectives: (1) comparative analysis of mass media materials, (2) investigation of policies and practices guiding the selection and production of mass media materials relevant to the study, and (3) investigation of the nature and effects of contacts between the mass media and the education professions.

Research abroad was carried out with the help of social scientists, government officials, media executives, and educators. These people were personally contacted by the investigator. Their cooperation was instrumental in arranging for research assistance and for interviews, and in obtaining other information necessary for the studies.

Mass media investigated were newspapers, mass circulation periodicals, broadcasting, and full-length feature (entertainment) film production. People interviewed were those in positions of policy-making or policy-execution in the media; those producing, creating, writing, or editing materials for mass media; and those in professional education and educational organizations having some special responsibility for public information and contacts with the media.

Teams of analysts were composed of graduate students, professional researchers, and other qualified personnel. They were recruited and trained by the investigator. Supervision of the analysis was the joint responsibility of the investigator and of the chief analyst of each team. The specific procedures employed in data collection for the different studies are explained in the introductory sections of the Appendixes.

Areas and countries included in the research

All countries involved in the study were advanced industrial societies. The major overall difference among them was the nature of social and industrial organization. In five of the countries the dominant type of industrial organization was some form of private enterprise in the general tradition of capitalism. In the other five the dominant system was public enterprise in some form of the tradition of revolutionary socialism. There were, of course, great differences among countries sharing the same general social and industrial system, and there were certain striking similarities among countries with different systems. In certain respects, however, the grouping and discussion of findings by the overall differences in the system of social and industrial organization was both convenient and significant.

Within each general type of system, there were two kinds of countries: one very large power playing a dominant role within its sphere of primary economic and military interest, and some of the other countries representing distinct historical and cultural entities. The two types in the first group of countries were the United States and four countries of Western and Central Europe (called Western

Europe in the studies). The two types in the second group were the Soviet Union (U.S.S.R.), and four countries of Eastern and Central Europe (called Eastern Europe in the studies).

The term "area" is used to designate results representing all data from the U. S., Western Europe, Eastern Europe, and the U.S.S.R. No tabulations combine data from these areas.

Countries of Western Europe included in the studies were Great Britain, France, West Germany, and Austria. Countries of Eastern Europe were East Germany, Poland, Czechoslovakia, and Hungary.

United States. The major emphasis of the project was on the American scene, viewed in a historical and comparative perspective. The largest number of studies was, therefore, conducted in the United States. Special U.S. studies dealt with educational reporting and public relations, press coverage of an education convention, and media trend analyses. The U.S. was included in all mass media policy and content studies.

Great Britain. The cooperation of the National Institute of Adult Education, London, in making personnel and facilities available to the study, and in assisting with arrangements for contacts and interviews, made it possible to conduct all media policy and content studies in Great Britain.

France. The Centre d'Études des Communications de Masse, École Pratique des Hautes Études Sciences Économiques et Sociales, Paris, made personnel and facilities available to the study and helped with arrangements for interviews. A special case study of press coverage was conducted in the French press. France is represented in the comparative analysis of mass media fiction and drama.

West Germany. The Institut für Publizistik at Wilhelms University, Münster, made personnel and facilities available for the study, and assisted with arrangements for some interviews. The Institut für Publizistik, Free University, Berlin, and the West Berlin Information Center helped with arrangements for interviews there. West Germany is represented in all comparative mass media studies.

Austria. Shortage of time and facilities limited the studies to the analysis of films and radio plays. Relevant samples of Austrian origin were included with those of West Germany in all tabulations as they circulate relatively freely in the same audience and market areas. The Research Department of the Austrian Radio and the Austrian Society for Film Sciences and Film Economy assisted with the analyses.

East Germany. Arrangements were made with the Deutsche Zentralstelle für Filmforschung, Berlin, to provide personnel and facilities for the film and broadcast analyses. After the training period, however, other assignments and the consequent lack of time of the analysts prevented the actual analysis. Interviews were arranged in all media, and press material was collected with the help of the DZF. East Germany is represented in the comparative analysis of press systems.

Poland. The Faculty of Journalism, University of Warsaw, helped recruit analysts, and the Union of Journalists assisted with arrangements for interviews. Poland is represented in the comparative analyses of press systems and of mass media fiction and drama.

Czechoslovakia. The cooperation of individual members of the Film Academy, the Union of Journalists, and the Faculty of Journalism at Charles University, Prague, made the studies possible. The Foreign Relations sections and Research Departments of the Czechoslovak Radio and Television also helped with materials and interviews. Czechoslovakia is represented in all media content studies.

Hungary. The Film Research Institute, Budapest, helped with personnel and facilities for the analyses. The Institute for Cultural Relations and the Association of Journalists helped arrange interviews. The Foreign Relations section and the Research Department of the Hungarian Radio furnished some materials and information. It was possible to conduct all media content studies in Hungary.

U.S.S.R. The Union of Soviet Friendship and Cultural Relations Societies, Moscow, arranged some appointments and helped with the search for professional or academic contacts, informants, and analysts. The Faculty of Journalism, University of Moscow, also assisted with the arrangements for interviews. The Moscow Film Academy gave the investigator permission to recruit graduate students for the analysis of relevant films. However, no arrangements could be made for the payment of the analysts. Only 15 films out of a much larger sample of relevant Soviet films were actually analyzed. The small size and selective nature of the Soviet film sample made it necessary to exclude the results of the analysis from most of the tabulation. Where tabulated, these results are presented separately and are not included in any area totals.

The cooperation of the editors of Izvestia made it possible to secure a sample of items representing that newspaper's treatment of educational matters, and to include the analysis of that sample in the comparative study of press systems.

Problems and accomplishments

Some of the ways in which the objectives of the project were reached were straightforward and conventional, requiring little or no methodological insight or explanation. But others were novel and pioneering. Some of the studies led through areas both methodologically and geographically uncharted by social science research. Certain choices between "doing the best we can" and doing nothing at all were unavoidable. Sometimes "doing the best" proved to be not good enough to provide a reasonably reliable basis for inference, and much information had to be omitted from the systematic presentations,

The overall design itself had to be fluid and adjustable to circumstances. Some procedures and methods were improvised as the opportunities arose for certain types of investigation. Within the general theoretical framework discussed below, many decisions had to be made quickly and for reasons of expediency rather than perfection of design. The resulting structure of findings is complex and in certain respects unwieldy.

The accomplishments of the research are of three kinds. First, the fact that such research could be conducted at a time of serious international tension and crises, and that a spirit of fairness, cordiality, and scientific integrity was evident in all personal contacts among collaborators in countries divided by "cold war" friction, can be considered an accomplishment in itself. Secondly all major substantive purposes of the project were accomplished. Third, methodological developments, as well as substantive findings, resulting from these studies point the way to further research in the areas explored by this project, and provide a basis of information and experience for correcting or overcoming the limitations and shortcomings of the present research.

THEORETICAL ASSUMPTIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The message systems of a culture not only inform but also form people and their images of the world; they not only entertain but also create audiences; they not only satisfy but also shape attitudes, tastes, preferences. They provide the boundary conditions and overall patterns within which the processes of personal selection, interpretation, and opinion formation go on.

These considerations have two major implications for communications research. First they suggest that single-culture, single-variable, or before-and-after type of studies contribute little to an understanding of the cultural process. Assessment of the nature of the cultural process requires recognition of the flow and direction of historical continuities, and a comparative, cross-cultural dimension of analysis.

Secondly, the position of individuals or groups in the flow of the cultural process is no necessary indication of the nature and direction of that flow itself. People swimming in a river can make "progress" in many different directions. All directions, and even the definition of "progress," are relative to the direction and speed of the current itself. If the current were to change, all these directions and speeds would be altered. Similarly, the formation of images, concepts, and opinions in a culture are related to the general processes of cultivation, but do not define it. A study of the nature and flow of the cultural process is, therefore, a prior step to the investigation of personal image-formation. The meaning and measure of ideas is relative to the nature and direction of the cultivation of ideas in a culture. It is of little significance to know that "Person X believes in Santa Claus" until we also know in what culture, at what point in time, and in the context of what message-systems cultivating or inhibiting such beliefs. Knowledge about these other circumstances alone can give ideas their functional significance. The meaning of any image or opinion is, again, relative to the specific context of social and cultural cultivation of images and opinions. "Effect" of communications in a culture is, therefore, the nature of message-image relationships seen as a historical process of message-production and image-formation, defined at any one time by the terms of message systems entering into the cultivation of images and the nature of images entering into the production and perception of messages.

The broadest common denominator of that general cultural process, and the part most dependent on centralized policy-making and decision, is the mass-production of message systems.

Mass communications and the cultural process

Mass media of communications mass-produce message systems which mediate the social interaction called communication. Mass media are the chief cultural agencies of industrial society. Being industrial enterprises dependent upon and supporting other industries, mass media are also the chief cultural arms of industry (and business), viewing and presenting society and its institutions from their own institutional vantage points.

Mass-produced message systems are, then, produced, composed, and structured in the particular patterns of the dominant industrial organization of a society, and in the general patterns of total social relations and values of a society. The relationship of the media to society and to other institutions in society is the key to an examination of the role media play in presenting other institutions, and, through them, aspects of society as a whole.

That is why an essential part of this research was the description of media, organization, functions, policies, practices, and relationships with professional organizations in education.

The analysis of the mass-produced message systems themselves was also guided by the assumption of organic relationships between the message systems, media functions, and social structure.

These relationships are not necessarily expressed in individual units composing message systems, such as press items, magazine articles, stories, or plays. If they were, no systematic research would be necessary to study them. The structural relationships between message systems and social systems are features of systems, but not necessarily of their component parts. The component and structural message elements were treated as systems indicative of the "raw materials" and patterns from which individual units such as press items or fiction stories are woven in many different combinations. This type of analysis stands in the same relation to individual items and stories as, for example, an investigation of available fibers, looms, design elements, and working relationships in rug production stands in relation to carpets in stores and homes.

Message system, image, and existence

The materials investigated were selected on the basis of special criteria: relevance to teachers, students, schools, and education. (Definitions of "relevance" are given in the individual studies.) Materials selected on such bases undoubtedly have certain special characteristics. Some of these have been assessed through comparisons with materials not selected by these criteria. The special characteristics relate mostly to subject matter and the treatment of certain subjects. But, through focusing on the treatment of an area of great social importance, it was possible to examine not only the nature of events dealt with but also ways of dealing with phenomena characteristic of the systems themselves.

Selection and symbolic representation of phenomena is in part contingent upon existence -- upon the importance and the relevance of certain events to a communicating agent or agency. But policies (or consciousness) relating to existence, importance, and relevance are socially structured. This structure of assumptions, views, ideas, tastes, habits, etc., and their existential content (subject reference) is what we call the image. The image thus pre-structures the world of events and ideas to be considered real, important, relevant. Policies, rules, codes, working assumptions, and the set of industrial, market, and organizational relationships in which mass media operate compose their institutionalized "image" of what is to be selected for mass production and how it is to be treated. The position, ownership, purposes and functions of mass media in a social system form this institutionalized "image" which, in turn, shapes the message systems cultivating the structure of public images in a society. The terms of broadest social interaction are those available in the most widely shared message systems of a culture. Whether one is unaware of them, supportive of them, critical of them, or even alienated or rebellious of them, the terms of the culture shape the course of the response. Culture cultivates both conformity and rebellion after its own image.

The analysis of message systems

The mass-produced message systems of a culture are thus seen as the common public currency of the social interaction called communications, and as expressing the broadest popular terms of image formation in that culture.

What distinguishes the analysis of message systems as a social scientific enterprise from other types of observation, commentary, or criticism? The distinctions are more of method and of selection and grouping of elements considered most relevant to different central purposes than of general usefulness, significance, or value. A central purpose of social science is to deal systematically, rather than only selectively or only qualitatively, with problems of collective life. This research made no assumptions about such conventionally demarcated functions as "information" and "entertainment," or "high culture" and "low culture." Style of expression, quality of representation, artistic excellence, or the quality of experience associated with selective exposure to and participation in the communication exchange were not considered critical variables for purposes of this study. Informative, entertaining (or both), good, bad, or indifferent by any standard of quality -- these are selective judgments applied to messages quite independently from the social functions these message systems actually perform. These judgments are irrelevant to the basic questions of the presentation of what _is_, what is _important_, what is _right_, and what is _related_ to what else in mass-produced message systems.

Standards of style and of quality are historically determined and socially nurtured; they are both class and culture bound. The study of these standards is of course an important and legitimate activity of criticism and even of social science. Part I dealt with the bases and development of some quality standards which underly the processes of selection and decisions leading to the composition and structuring of mass-produced message systems. But the _use_ of any one of these standards in the comparative analysis of the message systems themselves would have involved imposing the standards of one system upon the others. It would have amounted to the cultivation rather than the comparative analysis of class and culture-bound processes inherent in the communication exchange.

Just as these studies made no _a priori_ assumptions about the significance of style, quality, and subjective experience associated with different types of message systems, they did not recognize the validity of conventional distinctions of function attached to "non-fictional" vs. "fictional" modes of presentation. "Fact" may be stranger than fiction, and the veracity of "fiction" greater than of the presumably factual. Regardless of verisimilitude, credibility, or what is actually "believed" in a presentation, message systems cultivate the terms upon which they present subjects or aspects of life. There is no reason for assuming that the cultivation of these terms depends in any significant way upon the mode of presentation, upon agreement or disagreement with or belief or disbelief in the presentations involved, or upon whether these presentations are presumably factual or imaginary. This does not mean, of course, that we do not normally attach greater credibility to a news story, a presumably factual report, a trusted source, a familiar account, than to a fairy tale or to what we regard as false or inimical. What it does mean is that in the general process of image formation and cultivation, "fact" and "fable" play equally significant and interrelated roles.

There is, however, an important difference between the ways "fiction" and "non-fiction" deal with life. Reportage, exposition, explanation, argument -- whether based on fact, fancy, opinion, or all of these -- ordinarily deals with specific aspects of life or thought extracted from total situations. What gives shape, focus, and purpose to the "non-fictional" mode of presentation is that it is analytical; it implicitly organizes the universe into classes of subjects and topics, and it devotes primary attention to one or more of these subjects and topics.

The usual purpose of the fictional and dramatic modes of presentation is to present situations rather than fragments of knowledge as such. The focus is on people in action and interaction; subjects and topics enter as they become significant to the situations. The re-creation of significant aspects of a human condition which characterize and explain situations and action, and which characterize and motivate characters in action, is the outstanding feature of the fictional and dramatic modes of presentation.

From the point of view of the analysis of elements of existence, values, and points of view inherent in message systems, fiction and drama thus offer special opportunities. Here an aspect of life, an area of knowledge, or the operation of a social enterprise such as education, appears imaginatively re-created in its significant associations with total human situations. The selection and shaping of the "worlds" of fiction and drama in a culture may, therefore, reveal values and judgments underlying but not necessarily manifested in the operation of other types of message systems. The requirements which make the treatment of specific subjects professions, institutions, etc. secondary to the requirements of telling a "good story" make the treatment of those subjects more indicative of the assumptions underlying their nature and role in the story-telling process, and of the images, values and gratifications cultivated by the story-telling process.

These are some reasons why the analysis of fictional and dramatic content was a major task of these studies. But, aside from the special opportunities presented by such analyses, it should also be noted that exposure to any aspect of life in a fictional and dramatic context accounts for a very large share of the total exposure to such messages.

It should also be pointed out (as is repeatedly noted in the discussion of these studies) that characteristics of message systems are not necessarily the characteristics of individual units composing the systems. The purpose of the study of a system as system is to reveal features, processes, and relationships expressed in the whole, not in its parts. Unlike most literary or dramatic criticism, or, in fact, most personal cultural participation and judgment, communication system analysis as social science attempts to study media content as the record of institutional social and industrial behavior in the cultural field, representing processes of message-production and image-formation, but not necessarily qualities of personal experience and response.

Terms of the analysis

The purpose of analysis was, then, to examine the terms of message-production and image-formation represented in mass-produced message systems of different cultures. Some methods of analysis were descriptive of such aspects as trends in media content; types of subjects involved in press coverage; sources of news dealing with education; the general nature of relevant fiction and drama; time, place, themes, and other plot characteristics; types of fictional characters and of their interaction; the nature of dramatic action in the plays and stories; and the kinds of school programs, activities, and relationships depicted.

Other methods of analysis were designed to inquire into characteristics of processes composing and structuring message systems. The process of composition denotes the way a message system is put together; structuring means the way elements composing message systems relate to one another.

The terms and concepts used to designate aspects of the process of composition were: attention, emphasis, value, and tendency. The process of structuring was seen as a matter of correlation. Explanation of these terms and concepts follows.

Attention is the process of selection of phenomena attended to. A measure of attention is an indication of the presence and frequency of subjects or content elements (topics, themes, etc.) in a message system. The significance of attention as an aspect of the process of message-production and image-formation is that it stems from, and, in turn cultivates, assumptions about existence; it provides common conceptions about what "is" (or at least what is sufficiently common and public knowledge to form a basis for social interaction).

Emphasis is that aspect of the composition of message systems which establishes a context of priorities of importance or relevance. The context of emphases sets up a field of differential appeal in which certain things stand out as more significant than others. Emphasis "structures the agenda" of image-formation and public discourse cultivated in message systems. Measures of emphasis developed in these studies were based on such indications as the headlining of topics in news items or the featuring of certain topics or themes as the major points of stories.

Value is a term used to combine attention and emphasis into a single concept and measure. As a quantitative measure "news value" or "story value" were indexes combining the other two measures into a single figure heavily weighted by the measure of emphasis. The reason for this weighting was that attention in a large and fairly diverse message system is diffused; the process of emphasis plays a major part in allocating the energies going into image-formation. In other words, a newspaper or fiction story "attends to" many more things than an individual reader or viewer consciously contemplates or uses. Although all things "attended to" may relate to the image of the reader in one way or another (things we know we cannot or do not want to read or view play a part in our thinking), the selective allocation of interest, appeal and conscious cultivation is largely governed (and can even be forced) by the distribution of emphasis. Few can escape a banner headline, a major theme, a vivid picture.

A measure of news or story value is also an expression of certain overall priorities which govern distribution. Distribution here means not frequency of occurrence at one time but frequency of production and circulation over time. In other words, the higher the "value" of a certain content element (as indicated by attention weighted by emphasis), the more that element is an ingredient of a "good story," and the larger distribution it is likely to receive. It was possible to provide a measure of distribution (in the form of average circulation figures by topics and types of items) in the study of the press coverage of an educational convention (Appendix II-B).

Tendency. The position of a system (or of an individual) in time, space, and in the overall structure of social relations enters into the approach, point of view or direction from which it deals with aspects of existence. What we see and how we present it depends in large part on where we are. The directionality of presentation, the explicit or contextual judgment of qualities of phenomena expressed in the presentation, is called tendency.

The broadest overall dimension of judgment is a summary evaluation of the goodness or badness, rightness or wrongness of things. A measure of the favorable-unfavorable associations expressed in the comparative study of press systems was called critical tendency; it was based primarily on whether a subject or topic appeared in a supportive or critical context.

But judgment is, of course, multidimensional, as the research of Charles E. Osgood and others has demonstrated. Differential tendency can be used to describe a measure indicating directionality of judgment in several different dimensions. Such a measure, called "personality differential" was developed for a study of the composite character traits of teachers, students, and others in the different cultures (Appendix IV-C).

A somewhat different indication of tendency can be obtained from an analysis of different types of propositions (rather than subjects or topics), selected for attention e.g. by political media in a multi-party country. Such an analysis is attempted in the case study of French newspaper coverage reported in Appendix II-E.

Structure is the system of connections among elements of a message system. It is an indication of which elements (topics, themes, etc.) are most likely to occur together with which other elements. The measure of correlation was used to examine structure in the press system topic analysis (Appendix II-D) and in the comparative study of thematic elements in fiction and drama (Appendix IV-B). A series of cross-tabulations give some indication of the structure of elements of dramatic action in Appendix IV-E.

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These terms and measures, as well as others used in the analyses, are explained in detail in the introductions to the Appendixes in which they appear. They are mentioned here only to indicate their place in the framework of theoretical assumptions which guided their development and emerged from their use.

The discussion began with some implications of a conception of the cultural process for communications research. The role of mass media and of mass-produced message systems was seen as that of a kind of public mediation between social existence and social consciousness, whether that process served to illuminate or to obscure (or both) the "facts" of life and society.

A system of social relations, a system of message-production, and ways of structuring and cultivating the public images of a culture were seen expressed in and through the terms of mass-produced message systems. These terms were assumed to form and cultivate the broadest bases of meaningful interaction in a society.

Finally it was suggested that analysis of these message systems needs to cut across conventional class and culture bound distinctions rooted in personal experience in order to examine the overall composition, structure, and perspectives of message-production and image-formation, and their relationships to social structure and social policy.

The analysis of message systems examined in this report included general descriptions of trends, things, times, places, people, and actions in the "worlds" of education in the mass media of several cultures. Some measures were also developed to deal more specifically with processes operating in message systems and the terms in which they compose (1) assumptions about existence (what there is to attend to), (2) a context of differential appeals (what is urgent, relevant, important, or interesting enough to receive, through emphasis, prior claim on time and attention), (3) a set of approaches or points of view which tend to cast things in the light of some dimension of qualitative judgment (good or bad, right or wrong, etc.), and (4) a structural relatedness of things (what is most likely to go together with what else).

Subsequent Appendixes of Part II of this report discuss methods and measures used and present all quantitative data resulting from these analyses.

Appendix II

MASS MEDIA TRENDS, CASE STUDIES IN NEWSPAPER COVERAGE, AND THE COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF PRESS SYSTEMS

Three types of studies are presented in this series of five Appendixes. (1) Trend analyses trace the allocation of attention to education (and, in some instances, other subjects as well) in different U.S. media. (2) Case studies in newspaper coverage focus upon the treatment of single events (or series of events) involving education in different ways and in different press systems. (3) Different methods of comparative analysis provide measures of the treatment of educational subjects and topics in several press systems.

Appendix II-A contains the tabulations of certain trends in U.S. book publishing, in selected newspapers, magazines, and comic strips, and in entertainment film production.

Appendix II-B gives the findings of a case study of the coverage of the 1961 National Education Association Convention in American daily newspapers.

Appendix II-C introduces the comparative study of the treatment of subjects related to education in the press of the United States, Great Britain, West Germany, East Germany, Poland, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, and the U.S.S.R. A general description of the study is followed by tabulations giving the sources, types, and educational relevance of the content of the samples from the different countries.

Appendix II-D presents the methods and findings of a technique called topic analysis. This technique provides a detailed account of the composition and structuring of the press samples from the eight countries.

Appendix II-E describes the methodology of an analysis of differential tendency (called proposition analysis), and presents the findings of a case study of ideological perspectives in multi-party news reporting in the French press. The case study focused on the reporting of a criminal case implicating a teacher, and on the differences in reporting the case in the political Left, Right, and commercial newspapers. The background of the study is presented along with the reproduction and tabulation of the differential accounts reconstructed through the method of proposition analysis. Findings of a separate study of space allocation to educational subjects in Paris dailies appear in Table 3 of Appendix II-E.

Appendix II-A

TRENDS IN U.S. MASS MEDIA

The following Tables present the findings of explorations in trends of amounts of attention paid to education and to some other subjects in several U.S. media. Table 1 deals with book publishing, Table 2 with trends in the New York *Times*, and Tables 3 to 8 with mass circulation magazines. Table 9 deals with trends in the number of education reporters. Tables 10 and 11 are the findings of an analysis of relevant content in *Puck*, the comic weekly. Tables 12 to 16 explore different aspects of motion picture production trends.

TABLE 1

BOOKS ABOUT EDUCATION PUBLISHED IN THE UNITED STATES, 1910-1962[1]

Year	No. of Education titles	Percent of all titles
1910	421	4.0
1915	237	2.4
1920	111	1.8
1925	179	2.2
1930	240	2.4
1935	266	3.0
1940	349	3.1
1945	124	1.9
1950	256	2.3
1952	281	2.4
1953	230	1.9
1954	260	2.2
1955	274	2.2
1956	267	2.2
1957	317	2.4
1958	331	2.5
1959	417	2.8
1960	348	2.3
1961[2]	534	3.0
1962	682	3.1

[1] Source: Health, Education, and Welfare Trends, published annually by the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Data compiled from Publisher's Weekly include books published for the first time, and new editions published with "substantial changes in text or format." Education classification does not include textbooks.

[2] Data through 1960 are in accordance with an international classification dating back to 1911; data beginning 1961 are classified according to Dewey Decimal Numbers and are not strictly comparable with earlier data.

TABLE 2

"SCHOOLS," "EDUCATION," AND "TEACHERS" LISTINGS IN THE NEW YORK TIMES INDEX 1913-1962[1]

Years	Total listings Cols. per yr.		"Schools"[2] Cols. per yr.		"Education" Cols. per yr.		"Teachers" Cols. per yr.	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1913-18	9.9	.29	7.3	.21	2.1	.06	.5	.02
1919-21	14.1	.39	8.2	.23	3.6	.10	2.3	.06
1922-24	20.9	.45	13.0	.28	6.4	.14	1.5	.03
1925-28	28.4	.52	17.1	.32	7.1	.13	4.2	.07
1929	23.7	.53	14.6	.33	5.5	.12	3.6	.08
1930	41.5	.72	26.6	.46	9.8	.17	5.1	.09
1931	36.6	.66	23.7	.43	8.0	.14	4.9	.09
1932	32.7	.61	20.5	.38	6.9	.13	5.3	.10
1933	35.4	.59	24.0	.40	6.1	.10	5.3	.09
1934	37.1	.70	21.3	.40	7.4	.14	8.4	.16
1935	40.8	.69	25.5	.43	6.6	.11	8.7	.15
1936	44.3	.67	29.2	.44	6.5	.10	8.6	.13
1937	40.2	.77	23.5	.45	6.9	.13	9.8	.19
1938	40.5	.88	21.8	.47	7.2	.16	11.5	.25
1939	40.7	.85	4.8	.10	25.3	.53	10.6	.22
1940	30.2	.65	4.5	.10	18.8	.40	6.9	.15
1941	29.1	.67	4.3	.10	18.2	.42	6.6	.15
1942	26.4	.65	5.6	.14	14.5	.36	6.3	.15
1943	29.6	.79	6.1	.16	16.7	.45	6.8	.18
1944	25.1	.63	4.0	.10	14.8	.37	6.3	.16
1945	27.1	.60	4.7	.10	16.1	.36	6.3	.14
1946	55.5	1.02	13.9	.26	27.2	.50	14.4	.26
1947	58.2	1.20	12.3	.25	29.2	.60	16.7	.35
1948	53.2	1.46	15.7	.43	27.4	.75	10.1	.28
1949	55.0	1.59	17.3	.50	26.7	.77	11.0	.32
1950	61.6	1.63	18.9	.50	29.0	.77	13.7	.36
1951	52.0	1.43	13.4	.37	26.9	.74	11.7	.32
1952	53.7	1.39	12.7	.33	30.2	.78	10.8	.28
1953	55.8	1.52	14.3	.39	28.2	.77	13.3	.36
1954	64.8	1.75	12.1	.33	42.3	1.14	10.4	.28
1955	71.6	1.88	15.1	.40	44.2	1.16	12.3	.32
1956	112.0	2.62	26.6	.62	70.4	1.65	15.0	.35
1957	88.4	2.78	19.0	.60	59.9	1.88	9.6	.30
1958	94.6	3.07	15.4	.50	71.4	2.32	7.8	.25
1959	84.2	2.57	16.8	.51	57.0	1.74	10.4	.32
1960	83.7	2.46	20.7	.61	51.0	1.50	12.0	.35
1961	105.0	3.12	22.9	.68	73.1	2.17	9.0	.27
1962	91.3	2.86	29.0	.91	52.2	1.64	10.1	.31

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[1] The unit of measurement was the column (or fraction of column) occupied by listings under the appropriate headings. N indicates columns; % is the percentage of space (in columns) out of the total amount of space in the entire Index.

[2] "Schools" includes subheads under "New York City" and "New York State" ("Board of Education" or "Schools"), "High Schools," "Schools," and "Colleges and Universities."

TABLE 3

MASS CIRCULATION MAGAZINE ARTICLES LISTED IN THE READER'S GUIDE UNDER "EDUCAT-" AND "TEACH-" HEADINGS 1900 TO 1959, AND 1959 TO 1963[1]

	Circulation and number of articles for entire periods of listing of magazines in RG until 3/1/59					Circulation and number of articles listed in RG 3/1/59 - 1/1/63			
	Ave. annual circulation for all articles		Ave. no. of articles per year		Reader's Guide volumes in which magazine was indexed, and relevant articles listed	Ave. annual circulation of all articles		Ave. no of articles per year	
Magazines	Rank	Circulation^2 (000's)	Rank	No.	Years	Rank	Circulation^2 (000's)	Rank	No.
Reader's Digest	1	46,960	8	4.2	1936-1959	1	48,520	9	3.9
Look	2	12,748	10	2.9	1953-1959	7	15,691	11	2.6
Time	3	12,065	1	8.8	1935-1959	3	41,633	1	17.0
McCall's	4	8,943	16	1.9	1952-1959	10	13,802	12	2.3
Sat. Evening Post	5	8,837	12	2.6	1920-1959	2	42,806	5	7.0
Life	6	6,762	19	1.4	1940-1959	4	28,389	7	4.4
NY Times Magazine	7	6,458	5	6.4	1939-1959	8	15,609	3	12.3
Ladies' Home Journ.	8	6,175	13	2.2	1900-1959	5	23,962	10	3.9
Parents' Magazine	9	5,816	4	6.7	1929-1959	9	13,847	4	7.6
Newsweek	10	5,695	2	8.4	1933-1959	6	21,430	2	15.7
Literary Digest	11	4,493	7	4.8	1912-1938		Not published		
US News and WR	12	3,679	6	6.3	1946-1959	11	7,854	6	6.8
Woman's Home Comp.	13	2,902	21	1.2	1904-1959		Not published		
Collier's	14	2,238	23	1.1	1910-1956		Not published		
Better Homes & G.	15	2,112	24	.8	1929-1959	13	3,895	15	.8
Coronet	16	1,394	29	.5	1949-1959	14	1,546	17	.5[3]
American Home	17	1,197	27	.6	1928-1959		None listed		
American Magazine	18	1,079	28	.6	1905-1959		Not published		
Good Housekeeping	19	856	25	.8	1905-1959	12	7,382	13	1.6
Outlook	20	710	3	7.1	1900-1935		Not published		
Atlantic	21	371	9	3.2	1900-1959	15	1,142	8	4.2
Cosmopolitan	22	351	30	.5	1900-13;53-59		Not published		
World's Work	23	325	11	2.8	1900-1932		Not published		
Harper's Bazaar	24	246	14	2.1	1900-1913		Not indexed		
Harper's	25	211	17	1.7	1900-1959	17	358	14	1.6
World Today	26	186	15	2.0	1905-1911		Not published		
McClure's	27	169	31	.4	1900-1916		Not published		
Scribner's	28	164	20	1.4	1900-1938		Not published		
Everybody's Mag.	29	151	32	.3	1905-1921		Not published		
Delineator	30	126	35	.1	1904-1937		Not published		
Century	31	102	22	1.2	1900-1930		Not published		
Current Literature	32	83	18	1.6	1905-1912		Not published		
Current Opinion	33	50	26	.7	1913-1925		Not published		
Sunset	34	48	33	.2	1906-30;53-59	18	129	18	.2
House Beautiful	35	24	36	.1	1910-1959	16	625	16	.8
Scientific Amer.	36	15	34	.2	1900-1959		None listed		

[1] Included were magazines which reached an annual circulation of at least 100,000 and an average annual circulation of at least 70,000 during the entire period indexed in the Reader's Guide, and contained articles listed under the relevant headings.

[2] Ave. no. of articles per year multiplied by average annual circulation during entire period listed before March 1, 1959 and from March 1, 1959 to Jan. 1, 1963, respectively.

[3] Discontinued in 1962.

TABLE 4

METHOD OF COMPUTING ANNUAL AVERAGES OF MASS CIRCULATION MAGAZINE ARTICLES LISTED IN READER'S GUIDE UNDER "EDUCAT-" AND "TEACH-" SUBJECT HEADINGS[1]

Years covered in Reader's Guide volumes	Total number of articles listed in vol.	Average number of articles per year covered	Number of magazines indexed[2]	Average number of articles per year per magazine
1900-04	179	35.8	12.2	2.93
1905-09	155	31.0	17.6	1.76
1910-14	184	36.8	22.8	1.61
1915-18	80	20.0	20.8	.96
1919-21	90	30.0	21.0	1.43
1922-24	88	29.3	21.33	1.37
1925-28	119	29.8	22.2	1.34
1/1929-6/1932	93	26.6	22.43	1.19
7/1932-6/1935	106	35.3	20.83	1.69
7/1935-6/1937	87	43.5	21.75	2.00
7/1937-6/1939	88	44.0	20.5	2.15
7/1939-6/1941	98	49.0	20.75	2.36
7/1941-6/1943	90	45.0	21.0	2.14
7/1943-4/1945	59	32.2	21.0	1.53
5/1945-4/1947	146	73.0	21.66	3.37
5/1947-4/1949	104	47.8	20.0	2.39
5/1949-3/1951	113	58.9	23.0	2.56
4/1951-3/1953	85	42.5	23.625	1.80
4/1953-2/1955	143	74.5	27.0	2.76
3/1955-2/1957	215	107.5	26.25	4.10
3/1957-2/1959	197	98.5	24.0	4.10
3/1959-1/1963	353	92.1	22.0	4.18

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[1] See list of magazines and criteria for selection in Table 3. A subject breakdown of average number and percent of articles per magazine per year appears on Table 5. The specific subject headings were the following (as grouped on Table 5): "EDUCAT-" (A) General, miscell.: Education, Educ. U.S., and by States; Educ. of children, - of women, elementary, secondary, higher, - of adults. (B) Theory, goals: Educ. philosophy, history, aims and objectives, - and the state; - and democracy; - and citizenship. (C) Exper., methods: Educ., experimental; measurements, methods, surveys, statistics, research, guidance. (D) Foreign educ.: Educ. by foreign countries; international coop.; - comparative.
"TEACH-" (E) Gen., miscell.: Teachers; - in poetry, literature; - dress, health, adjustment; - married; - and the community. (F) Trng., methods: Teaching, - methods, aids and devices; training of teachers; teacher education; teachers and students; interchange of teachers; teachers institutes; - colleges.
(G) Salaries, profess'l: Teachers' salaries; - qualifications, tenure, pensions, retirement, unions, social status, supply and demand, certification, rating; teacher shortage, relief, availability, contracts; teachers dismissed, disloyalty, oaths of allegiance, political activities.
NOTE: Specific subject headings listed above include only those headings which contained listings of articles appearing in mass circulation magazines (see Table 3). "See also..." references were not searched.

[2] Numbers of magazines are not whole numbers when magazines were added or deleted from the list of those indexed in Reader's Guide during the period covered in a volume. Fractions represent proportion of time magazines were actually indexed in volume.

TABLE 5

MASS CIRCULATION MAGAZINE ARTICLES LISTED IN THE READER'S GUIDE UNDER "EDUCAT-" AND "TEACH-" SUBJECT HEADINGS FROM 1900 TO 1963; AVERAGE NUMBER OF ARTICLES PER YEAR PER MAGAZINE INDEXED, AND PERCENT BY GROUPS OF SUBJECTS[1]

Years covered in RG volumes	All headings (100%)	Articles listed under "Educat-" headings										Articles listed under "Teach-" headings							
		"Educat-" total		Gen., miscell. (A)		Theory, goals (B)		Exper., methods (C)		Foreign educ. (D)		"Teach-" total		Gen., miscell. (E)		Trng., methods (F)		Salaries profess'l (G)	
	Ave.	Ave.	%	Ave.	%	Ave	%	Ave.	%	Ave.	%	Ave	%	Ave.	%	Ave.	%	Ave.	%
1900-04	2.93	2.50	85	1.88	64	---	--	---	--	.62	21	.43	15	.29	10	.13	5	---	--
1905-09	1.76	1.29	74	.71	41	.06	3	---	--	.52	30	.46	26	.23	13	.14	8	.10	6
1910-14	1.61	1.34	83	1.03	64	.02	1	---	--	.29	18	.27	17	.17	11	.07	4	.03	2
1915-18	.96	.76	79	.43	45	.01	1	---	--	.31	33	.20	21	.10	10	---	--	.11	11
1919-21	1.43	.87	61	.65	46	.06	4	---	--	.16	11	.56	39	.29	20	.06	4	.21	14
1922-24	1.37	1.04	76	.75	54	.01	1	---	--	.28	20	.33	24	.20	15	.08	6	.06	4
1925-28	1.34	1.09	82	.97	72	---	--	---	--	.12	9	.25	18	.09	7	.14	11	.01	1
1/29-6/32	1.19	1.11	94	.74	62	.08	7	.14	12	.15	13	.08	6	.04	3	.04	3	---	--
7/32-6/35	1.69	1.42	84	.84	50	.43	25	.11	7	.03	2	.27	16	.11	7	.13	7	.03	2
7/35-6/37	2.00	1.63	82	1.03	52	.25	13	.16	8	.18	9	.37	18	.09	5	.02	1	.25	13
7/37-6/39	2.15	1.86	86	1.17	55	.34	16	.22	10	.12	6	.29	14	.17	8	.07	3	.05	2
7/39-6/41	2.36	2.00	85	1.23	52	.29	12	.31	13	.17	7	.36	15	.24	10	.10	4	.02	1
7/41-6/43	2.14	1.83	86	1.07	50	.40	19	.14	7	.21	10	.31	14	.17	8	.07	3	.07	3
7/43-4/45	1.53	1.27	83	.44	29	.39	25	.05	3	.39	25	.26	17	.16	10	.05	3	.05	3
5/45-4/47	3.37	2.54	75	1.34	40	.35	10	.09	3	.76	23	.83	25	.23	7	.09	3	.51	15
5/47-4/49	2.39	1.94	81	1.36	57	.35	14	---	--	.23	10	.46	19	.18	8	.14	6	.14	6
5/49-3/51	2.56	2.02	79	1.11	43	.50	20	.05	2	.36	14	.54	21	.20	8	.18	7	.16	6
4/51-3/53	1.80	1.50	84	.97	54	.17	9	.11	6	.25	14	.30	16	.09	5	.15	8	.06	4
4/53-2/55	2.76	1.93	70	1.33	48	.19	7	.12	4	.29	11	.83	30	.41	15	.23	8	.19	7
3/55-2/57	4.10	3.05	74	1.98	48	.17	4	.13	3	.76	19	1.05	26	.34	8	.38	9	.32	8
3/57-2/59	4.10	3.43	84	2.56	62	.19	5	.06	2	.62	15	.67	16	.29	7	.23	6	.15	3
3/59-1/63	4.18	3.37	81	2.06	49	.19	5	.32	8	.80	19	.81	19	.26	6	.43	10	.12	3

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[1] See list of magazines, criteria for selection, and periods indexed, in Table 3. Method for computing annual averages, and specific subject headings comprising subject groups (A) to (G) are shown in Table 4.

TABLE 6

SPACE DEVOTED TO "EDUCATION" IN 15 MASS CIRCULATION MAGAZINES BETWEEN JANUARY 1, 1938 AND JANUARY 1, 1963[1]

Magazines	Amount of space devoted to "education" (Average per year for period measured)		Percent of non-advertising space devoted to "education" (Average per year for period measured)		Time period measured[3] (years, inclusive)
	Rank	Linage[2]	Rank	Percent	
Life	1	49,041	4	2.2	1938-1962
Time	2	26,144	3	2.8	1938-1962
Sat. Eve. Post	3	22,240	7	1.1	1938-1962
Newsweek	4	19,887	5	2.0	1938-1962
Look	5	17,495	6	1.7	1938-1962
Reader's Digest	6	13,635	1	3.2	1955-1962
Parents' Magazine	7	10,285	2	3.0	1938-1962
Collier's	8	7,667	9	.7	1938-1956
Ladies' Home Journal	9	6,419	8	.9	1938-1962
McCall's	10	4,190	10	.6	1938-1962
American Magazine	11	3,201	11	.5	1938-1956
Good Housekeeping	12	2,910	14	.4	1938-1962
Better Homes & Gardens	13	2,515	12	.5	1938-1962
Popular Mechanics	14	2,267	13	.5	1946-1962
Harper's Bazaar	15	1,404	15	.2	1938-1962

[1] Based on data made available for this study by the Lloyd H. Hall Co. of New York, publishers of *Editorial Research Reports*. The unit of measurement was the agate line (see below); articles classified into the "Education" category dealt with subject clearly and explicitly relevant to education such as description of curriculum, teaching, teaching methods, schools, colleges, personalities in education, campus activities, and news items dealing with schools and education.

[2] Space measurement was based on "linage" - the number of agate lines on a page of relevant material including blank space, illustrations, captions, and body type. The number of agate lines per page was that given by the publisher for the magazine's advertising page. For the magazines tabulated above, that was as follows: 680 lines - Collier's, Ladies' Home Journal, Life, Look, McCall's, Saturday Evening Post; 632 lines - Better Homes & Gardens, Harper's Bazaar; 429 lines - Good Housekeeping, Parents' Magazine; 420 lines - American Magazine, Newsweek, Time; 224 lines - Popular Mechanics; 182 lines - Reader's Digest.

[3] For a year-by-year tabulation see Table 7.

TABLE 7

SPACE DEVOTED TO "EDUCATION" IN 15 MASS CIRCULATION MAGAZINES, AND IN THE HIGHEST TEN; BY YEAR[1]

	Averages for all 15 magazines measured		Percent of space devoted to "education" out of all non-advertising space in the ten leading mass circulation magazines measured for linage[2]									
	Ave. linage	Percent[2]	Life	Time	Sat. Eve. Post	News-week	Look	Readers Digest	Parents Magazine	Colliers	Ladies Home Journ.	McCalls
1938	7,608	1.0	1.4	3.2	.6	1.9	.7	*[3]	3.9	-	.7	-
1939	7,496	1.0	.7	2.2	.6	1.9	1.4	*	3.4	.1	.4	.5
1940	8,268	.8	1.8	2.1	.4	1.7	.9	*	1.5	-	.3	.1
1941	10,146	.8	3.0	2.3	.9	2.3	.7	*	.1	.1	.2	-
1942	8,081	.7	1.3	1.8	.6	1.5	2.0	*	.7	.1	.4	-
1943	6,853	.7	.8	1.9	.7	1.6	1.1	*	1.6	.2	.4	.2
1944	4,634	.6	.2	1.5	.4	1.5	-	*	3.1	.1	.4	-
1945	10,075	1.1	1.3	2.1	.8	1.3	2.1	*	3.2	1.0	.5	.4
1946	13,330	1.2	2.6	2.9	.8	1.7	2.7	*	1.3	.7	1.2	1.5
1947	14,513	1.3	2.2	3.0	.8	2.3	3.2	*	3.1	.7	1.4	.6
1948	13,457	1.5	2.7	3.1	.3	1.6	3.1	*	1.4	3.6	1.9	.5
1949	16,465	1.4	3.1	3.3	1.5	1.7	3.7	*	1.6	.6	1.8	.5
1950	18,871	1.5	5.0	3.0	1.2	1.7	2.4	*	2.4	1.2	.5	1.0
1951	13,804	1.2	2.5	3.1	1.1	1.9	1.8	*	3.3	.5	.4	.4
1952	13,652	1.2	3.2	2.8	.9	1.9	.5	*	3.8	.3	.3	2.4
1953	12,266	1.0	2.4	3.3	.8	2.0	.8	*	2.1	.5	.4	1.0
1954	16,984	1.5	3.4	3.1	1.6	2.1	1.2	*	4.0	2.2	1.3	.2
1955	13,487	1.3	2.2	3.4	1.0	2.7	1.5	2.6	2.5	.7	.3	.9
1956	14,949	1.6	2.0	3.0	1.5	2.2	1.1	3.9	3.4	.9	2.7	.8
1957	15,982	1.6	2.5	3.0	1.2	2.4	1.4	2.6	3.5	*	1.2	.6
1958	17,666	2.1	2.7	2.4	1.5	2.2	1.8	3.7	8.4	*	1.3	.4
1959	15,939	1.7	2.2	3.0	1.5	2.2	1.3	3.9	3.3	*	1.7	.7
1960	16,872	1.8	1.5	3.2	2.2	2.0	2.5	2.8	3.3	*	1.7	.5
1961	16,964	1.9	1.6	3.2	2.2	2.2	2.7	3.0	4.6	*	.1	.8
1962	16,791	1.9	1.8	3.3	1.3	2.5	2.7	3.4	5.3	*	.8	.7

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[1] For list of 15 magazines, and method of measurement, see Table 6.

[2] Percent of "education linage" out of all non-advertising space (in linage). For definitions, see Table 6.

[3] Asterisk means that magazine was not measured.

TABLE 8

OCCUPATIONAL AFFILIATIONS OF PERSONS PORTRAYED ON THE COVER OF *LIFE* MAGAZINE, 1936-1960

Occupational affiliations	1936-1940 N-204	1941-1944 N-210	1945-1948 N-223	1949-1952 N-228	1953-1956 N-196	1957-1960 N-212	1936-1960 N-1273
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Celebrity (stars, entertainers, artists)	25	18	25	36	42	33	30
Military, civil defense	19	43	11	8	3	6	15
Fashions	10	13	14	15	12	3	11
Sports, recreation	16	6	15	9	5	12	11
Government, politics	11	5	9	11	10	17	10
Education	7	5	9	5	4	3	6
"High society," royalty	4	2	3	4	7	7	5
Religion	1	2	3	2	5	6	3
Science, technology	1	1	1	1	1	6	2
Industry, labor, agriculture	2	2	2	--	1	2	2
All others	5	2	8	8	10	5	6

NOTE: A total of 1,252 *Life* covers were found in the bound volumes examined for a 25-year period. Of these, 1,127 covers portrayed persons whose occupational affiliation was indicated or well-known. A total of 1,273 occupational affiliations were recorded in 21 specific categories which were then grouped into the classifications shown above.

TABLE 9

TRENDS IN SOME EDITORIAL ASSIGNMENTS ON U.S. DAILY NEWSPAPERS[1]

	Number of persons holding departmental editorial assignment				Total no. of columns devoted to listing all departmental editors
Year	Education	Science	Stamps	Society	
1950	213	120	143	-	173
1952	199	113	141	-	168
1954	-	218	-	-	194
1955	373	186	181	--	276
1957	356	199	189	962	284
1959	408	219	216	1,080	303
1961	356	185	168	881	284
1963	431	233	206	988	354

[1] Compiled from The Working Press of the Nation, published biannually by The National Research Bureau Inc., Chicago 10, Ill. Figures before and after 1955 are not necessarily comparable because the directory changed management. Smaller newspapers often assign a staff member to more than one "beat" or subject. It is not known to what extent these figures represent changes in numbers of people assigned or only in obtaining questionnaire returns from newspapers.

TABLE 10

EDUCATIONAL REFERENCES IN PUCK: THE COMIC WEEKLY FOR 1958[1]

	Strip-weeks[2]
Classroom, school, or training situation, (not including sports)	31
General and miscellaneous references to school, educators, or education	25
References to grades, homework, report cards, study, etc. (not in-school)	7
References dealing with sports, coaches	8
Teacher-parent relations (home visits, PTA meetings)	3
Self-instruction, self-study courses	4
Other	6
Total	84

TABLE 11

PUCK COMIC STRIP FORMAT TYPES WITH AND WITHOUT REFERENCE TO TEACHERS OR EDUCATION[1]

Type of Strip	Strip-weeks[2] in percent: 1945-1959 Average for Sunday News-Paper Comics[3]	Total 1958 Puck Strips[3]	Strip-weeks with References to Education 1958
	%	%	%
SERIOUS (stories based on the classics, "social problem" strips, informational strips, but not personal and interpersonal relationships of everyday life)	6.5	7.1	1.2
HUMOR	57.8	60.0	85.7
"REAL-LIFE" (includes stories dealing primarily with personal or interpersonal relationships)	7.8	8.0	2.4
FANTASY (includes fairy tales, science-fiction, strips with non-human characters and non-earthly settings)	3.5	3.6	--
ACTION-ADVENTURE (includes most crime and western formula strips)	24.3	21.3	10.7
Totals	99.9	100.0	100.0

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[1] This analysis of one year's issues of Puck, a Sunday newspaper comic, was prepared for this study by Dr. F. E. Barcus, Communications Research Center, Boston University.

[2] The unit of analysis was the "strip-week," defined as a separate strip title appearing on one Sunday. Thus 28 separate strip titles in a Sunday section would be 28 strip-weeks. Any reference to teachers, school, instruction, or education in a title made that a relevant "strip-week." A total of 1,465 "strip-weeks" were examined and 84 (5.7%) were found to contain such reference.

[3] Source: F. E. Barcus, "Trends in Sunday Newspaper Comics, 1900-1959," Journalism Quarterly, Spring, 1961.

TABLE 12

U.S. FILMS INVOLVING TEACHERS, SCHOOLS, EDUCATION, AND PERCENT OF ALL FILMS PRODUCED, 1931 - 1960

	Total films produced[1]	Films involving education[2]	Percent of total
	N	N	%
1931-35	2,502	59	2.4
1936-40	2,475	100	4.0
1941-45	2,128	85	4.0
1946-50	1,852	66	3.6
1951-55	1,566	82	5.2
1956-60	1,154	69	6.0

[1] Source: Film Daily Yearbook.

[2] Based on reviews in Variety and other trade publications.

TABLE 13

TYPES OF FILMS INVOLVING EDUCATION 1931-1949 and 1950-1960, AND COMPARISON WITH TYPES OF FILMS NOT INVOLVING EDUCATION 1950-1960

	Films Involving Education		Films Not Involving Education
Film Type	1931-49 Percent[1] N=301	1950-60 Percent[1] N=160	1950-60 Percent[1] N=2957
General drama	53	49	29
Comedy	23	20	12
Detective and crime	17	12	19
Musical	13	8	7
Science fiction	3	11	5
Adventure	2	7	13
Western	3	4	20

[1] Total exceeds 100% because one film may be classified into more than one film type.

TABLE 14

NUMBER AND ANNUAL PERCENTS OF U.S. FILMS INVOLVING EDUCATION AND OF PROMINENT TEACHER-PROFESSOR ROLES, 1950-1960

	FILMS[1]		ROLES[2]	
	N	%	N	%
1950	10	6	11	5
1951	21	13	29	13
1952	21	14	28	13
1953	17	11	20	9
1954	6	4	7	3
1955	16	10	21	10
1956	13	8	26	12
1957	13	8	27	12
1958	22	14	19	9
1959	6	4	9	4
1960	15	9	19	9
Total:	160	100	Total: 216	100

[1] Based on reviews in Variety and other trade publications.

[2] Figures supplied by the Motion Picture Association of America.

TABLE 15

LEVEL AND TYPE OF EDUCATION PORTRAYED IN U.S. FILMS 1931-1960[1]

Level and type of education	1931-35 N = 59	1936-40 N = 100	1941-45 N = 85	1946-50 N = 66	1951-55 N = 82	1956-60 N = 69
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Primary school	1.7	2.0	1.2	12.1	11.0	11.6
Secondary school	16.9	17.0	23.5	12.1	7.3	21.7
Higher and adult	66.1	56.0	54.1	51.5	47.6	42.0
Military (both secondary and higher)	8.5	12.0	15.3	6.1	4.9	11.6
Other, several levels, level undefined	6.8	13.0	5.9	18.2	29.3	13.0

[1] Based on trade paper reviews.

TABLE 16

ANNUAL RANKS AND PERCENTS OF "SIGNIFICANT STORY ELEMENTS" IN U.S. FILMS 1950-1961[1]

Story elements in order of overall frequency	1950-61		1950		1951		1952		1953		1954		1955		1956		1957		1958		1959		1960		1961	
	R	%	R	%	R	%	R	%	R	%	R	%	R	%	R	%	R	%	R	%	R	%	R	%	R	%
Foreign	1	36.4	1	34.2	1	27.9	1	28.9	1	41.0	1	48.4	1	41.4	1	34.6	1	31.6	1	35.7	1	41.1	1	45.7	1	47.0
Military	2	16.6	3	14.5	3	13.0	3	13.5	2	17.0	2	20.9	2	17.9	2	15.6	2	16.7	2	21.0	2	18.6	2	20.1	2	18.9
Family Life	3	9.7	2	16.4	4	11.6	2	13.6	3	8.1	6	4.2	4.5	5.2	3	9.9	4	10.1	4.5	7.6	4	7.4	4	5.1	3	8.6
Psychological	4	7.6	4	7.9	2	13.7	5.5	7.0	5	5.2	7.5	2.4	4.5	5.2	5	7.9	3	10.7	3	9.2	7.5	4.3	5.5	4.7	4	5.6
Juvenile	5	6.2	5	5.7	6	6.2	5.5	7.0	4	5.9	4.5	4.5	9	3.8	4	8.8	5	8.7	7	4.1	3	7.8	3	5.5	7.5	3.3
Political	6	4.5	6	4.9	5	9.0	4	9.0	9	3.2	7.5	2.4	10.5	2.1	10	2.5	7	4.1	8.5	2.5	12	.4	10	2.0	9	2.0
Religious	7	4.1	7	4.4	10	2.6	7	5.5	6	4.2	3	5.9	7.5	4.5	9	3.1	8.5	3.7	11	1.3	5	5.6	5.5	4.7	5	4.0
Racial	8	4.0	10	2.5	7	4.6	9	3.7	9	3.2	11.5	1.4	3	7.6	7	4.8	8.5	3.7	6	5.7	7.5	4.3	8	3.1	7.5	3.3
Scientific	9	3.9	12	.9	10	2.6	11	2.3	11.5	2.7	4.5	4.5	6	4.8	6	5.4	6	5.8	4.5	7.6	6	4.8	7	4.3	6	3.6
Historical	10	2.8	8	3.8	10	2.6	10	3.5	7	3.5	10	1.7	7.5	4.5	8	4.0	11	1.7	8.5	2.5	9.5	2.2	10	2.0	10.5	1.3
Educational	11	2.2	11	1.4	8	4.0	8	4.3	9	3.2	11.5	1.4	12	1.0	11	2.0	12	1.2	12	.6	11	1.3	10	2.0	12	1.0
Medical	12	2.0	9	3.6	12	2.1	12	1.8	11.5	2.7	9	2.1	10.5	2.1	12	1.4	10	1.9	10	1.9	9.5	2.2	12	.8	10.5	1.3
		100%		100%		100%		100%		100%		100%		100%		100%		100%		100%		100%		100%		100%

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[1] Classification made by the Production Code Administration; figures supplied by the Motion Picture Association of America. One film may have more than one significant story element; however, percentages are based on all story elements recorded and not on the total number of films.

Appendix II-B

COVERAGE OF THE 1961 NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION CONVENTION IN AMERICAN DAILY NEWSPAPERS

The raw material for the analysis summarized in this series of Tables was a collection of newspaper clippings made available through the cooperation of the NEA's Division of Press, Radio and Television Relations.[1] The material was collected for the NEA by Press Intelligence, Inc. of Washington, D.C., a commercial clipping service. The service aimed at coverage of all U.S. daily newspapers; any omissions are due to error or oversight, not to partial coverage or sampling.

The period covered was from May 25, 1961 to July 30, 1961. A total of 2,240 items were processed. The circulation class of the newspaper in which each item appeared, the kind, length, source, page position, and several types of content information from each item were coded on IBM cards.

Content information included names of speakers and delegates noted or cited, and the incidence of topics or issues referred to in the stories. Special note was made of the major topic featured in the headline or lead of each story.

It was possible, then, to compute and tabulate the estimated circulation, number of stories, and average circulation per story for each classification. Average circulation per story in a certain content category can be used to determine whether that type of content was printed mostly by large or small circulation papers. The method of arriving at circulation figures is described in Table 1.

It was also possible to compute and tabulate such information for headline or lead topics, as well as for topics occurring anywhere in the stories. As only one headline and lead topic was recorded for each item, stories featuring several topics could be added to arrive at the total number featuring a group of topics in headlines and leads. As there was usually more than one topic noted in the body of a story, the number of stories noting a group of topics cannot be added across content categories.

Tables 2 to 6 deal with all items published during the study period. Tables 7-15 contain the findings of the analysis of the coverage after the opening of the convention on June 25, 1961.

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[1] Thanks for cooperation go to Roy K. Wilson, Beatrice M. Gudgridge, M. Ruth Broom, Phyllis Marcuccio and others on the staff of the National Education Association who made available press clippings and other materials essential to the study.

Appendix II-B

TABLE 1

NUMBER AND AVERAGE CIRCULATION OF ALL U.S. ENGLISH LANGUAGE DAILY NEWSPAPERS IN FOUR CIRCULATION CLASSES[1]

Circulation Class	I over 100,000	II 50,000 to 100,000	III 10,000 to 50,000	IV under 10,000
Number of daily papers in each class	123	111	545	809
Average net paid daily circulation per paper	267,717	71,597	21,506	5,323

[1] Based on Newspaper Circulation and Rate Trends. New York: Association of National Advertisers, Inc., 1959, p. 1.

NOTE: The average net paid daily circulation per paper in each circulation class, shown above, was used to arrive at the circulation estimate for each story in this study. Every story analyzed was classified into one of the above circulation classes, according to the actual declared average weekday circulation of the paper in which the story appeared. The findings of the analysis were multiplied by the average circulation of the class into which the story had been classified. For example, results for stories in circulation class I (over 100,000), were multiplied by 267,717; results for stories in circulation class II (50,000 to 100,000), were multiplied by 71,595; and so on.

TABLE 2

TOTAL NEA CONVENTION PRESS COVERAGE BY CIRCULATION CLASSES AND TIME PERIODS

Circulation Class	Before June 25		After June 25		Totals	
	Circ. in 1000's	Number of stories	Circ. in 1000's	Number of stories	Circ. in 1000's	Number of stories
I-over 100,000	6,425	24	86,472	323	92,852	347
II-50,000 to 100,000	2,506	35	16,753	234	19,259	269
III-10,000 to 50,000	2,602	121	22,452	1,044	25,054	1,165
IV-under 10,000	245	46	2,199	413	2,444	459
TOTALS	11,778	226	127,876	2,014	139,654	2,240
Percent of Circulation	8		92		100	
Percent of Stories		10		90		100

TABLE 3

COMPARISON OF TOTAL U.S. CIRCULATION AND TOTAL NEA CONVENTION COVERAGE CIRCULATION BY FOUR CIRCULATION CLASSES

Circulation Class	Percentage share of each circulation class in total U.S. daily press circulation	Percentage share of each circulation class in total convention story circ.
I-over 100,000	58	66
II-50,000 to 100,000	14	14
III-10,000 to 50,000	20	18
IV-under 10,000	8	2
TOTAL	100%	100%

TABLE 4

LENGTH OF ALL NEA CONVENTION STORIES BY CIRCULATION CLASSES

Circulation Class	I over 100,000	II 50,000 to 100,000	III 10,000 to 50,000	IV under 10,000
Number of stories[1]	(347)	(269)	(1,165)	(459)
Length in column inches[2]				
under 5 inches	14	28	30	30
5 to 10 inches	31	42	37	42
10 to 15 inches	31	20	24	22
15 to 20 inches	14	5	6	4
over 20 inches	10	5	3	2
TOTAL	100%	100%	100%	100%

[1] Numbers in parentheses represent total number of stories appearing in each class.

[2] These numbers represent percent of total number of stories in circulation class in each length category.

TABLE 5

SOURCES OF STORIES IN NEA CONVENTION PRESS COVERAGE

SOURCE OF STORIES	Pre-convention coverage			June 25 and after			Total		
	Circ.in 1000's	No. of stories	Ave.Circ. per story in 1000's	Circ.in 1000's	No. of stories	Ave.Circ. per story in 1000's	Circ.in 1000's	No. of stories	Ave.Circ. per story in 1000's
AP, UPI, Syndicated	120	8	15	85,072	1,463	58	85,192	1,471	58
Staff byline	1,071	4	268	22,891	105	218	23,962	109	220
Editorial, column	22	1	22	3,118	85	37	3,140	86	36
Letter to editor	- -	-	- -	692	7	99	692	7	99
No source indicated	10,565	213	49	16,103	354	45	26,668	567	47
TOTALS	11,778	226	52	127,876	2,014	63	139,654	2,240	62

TABLE 6

LOCAL NAMES AND OTHER LEAD AND HEADLINE TOPICS IN NEA CONVENTION PRESS COVERAGE

TOPIC IN LEAD	Pre-convention coverage			June 25 and after			Total		
	Circ.in 1000's	No. of stories	Ave.Circ. per story in 1000's	Circ.in 1000's	No. of stories	Ave.Circ. per story in 1000's	Circ.in 1000's	No. of stories	Ave.Circ. per story in 1000's
Local names only (with up to one paragraph of explanation)	5,752	110	53	5,776	163	35	11,528	273	42
Local name lead followed by other convention topics	4,510	70	64	8,586	155	55	13,096	225	58
"Higher standards" or "promising practices" release used in lead of story*	218	10	22	364	7	52	582	17	34
Other non-local names or topics used in lead of story	1,298	36	36	113,150	1,689	66	114,448	1,725	66
TOTALS	11,778	226	52	127,876	2,014	63	139,654	2,240	62

*The "higher standards" or "promising practices" release was used in another 36 stories but not in the lead or headline. The combined circulation of all 53 stories using one of these releases was 1,804,000, and the average circulation per story was 34,000.

TABLE 7

TEN MOST FREQUENTLY CITED SPEAKERS IN THE NEA CONVENTION PRESS COVERAGE

	Circ.in 1000's	No. of stories	Ave.Circ. per story in 1000's
President Kennedy	13,719	267	51
Delegate Bert Ishee	11,366	130	87
N.J. Commissioner Raubinger	9,749	134	73
Professor Van Til	9,607	118	81
Professor Dale	7,298	86	82
U.S. Commissioner McMurrin	7,216	64	113
NEA Pres. Clarice Kline	5,352	83	64
Senator Wayne Morse	5,245	52	101
Principal Frank Brown	4,754	40	119
NEA Pres. Ewald Turner	4,350	63	69

TABLE 8

FRONT PAGE STORIES IN THE NEA CONVENTION PRESS COVERAGE

TOPICS IN HEADLINE AND LEAD	Circ.in 1000's	No. of stories	Ave.Circ. Per story in 1000's	Percent of total circulation of stories on topics
Federal aid to education	2,384	54	44	10.1
Desegregation	4,335	152	29	23.2
Other national issues	389	10	39	3.0
Communication technology	1,176	11	107	7.9
All other topics	288	17	169	—
TOTALS	8,572	244	35	6.7

TABLE 9

EDITORIALS IN THE NEA CONVENTION PRESS COVERAGE

EDITORIALS ON:	Circ.in 1000's	No. of stories	Ave.Circ. Per story in 1000's	Percent of editorials on topic opposed or critical
Federal aid to education	365	7	52	100.0
Desegregation	295	5	59	60.0
Communication technology in education	1,868	50	37	85.2
All other topics	655	28	23	33.7
TOTALS	3,183	90	35	69.0

TABLE 10

FEDERAL AID IN THE NEA CONVENTION PRESS COVERAGE

	TOPIC IN HEADLINE AND LEAD			ALL STORIES NOTIC TOPIC		
	Circ.in 1000's	No. of Stories	Ave.Circ. per story in 1000's	Circ.in 1000's	No. of stories	Ave.Circ. per story in 1000's
President Kennedy's message, NEA resolution on federal aid	16,356	289	57	21,171	484	44
Senator Morse's comments on religious conflict, etc.	4,351	35	124	4,904	38	129
"Letter barrage" resolution	2,847	83	34	2,847	83	34
All stories featuring topics in headline and lead	23,550	407	58			

TABLE 11

DESEGREGATION IN THE NEA CONVENTION PRESS COVERAGE

	TOPIC IN HEADLINE AND LEAD			ALL STORIES NOTIC TOPIC		
	Circ.in 1000's	No. of stories	Ave.Circ. per story in 1000's	Circ.in 1000's	No. of stories	Ave.Circ. per story in 1000's
Resolution on desegregation	17,721	678	26	19,672	693	28
Resolution commending Arlington Educ. Assoc.	983	3	295	15,031	248	61
All stories featuring topics in headline and lead	18,704	681	27			

TABLE 12
NATIONAL ISSUES OTHER THAN FEDERAL AID AND DESEGREGATION IN THE NEA CONVENTION PRESS COVERAGE

	TOPIC IN HEADLINE AND LEAD			ALL STORIES NOTING TOPIC		
	Circ.in 1000's	No. of stories	Ave.Circ. per story in 1000's	Circ.in 1000's	No. of stories	Ave.Circ. per story in 1000's
U.S. "complacency"	3,917	49	80	4,185	50	84
Communism	2,321	14	166	6,309	66	95
Population survey	2,102	74	28	2,612	89	29
Automation study	1,657	26	64	3,416	38	90
Rightwing attacks on education	1,008	10	101	2,700	20	135
Peace Corps	825	4	206	1,382	7	197
U.S. Office of Education	535	2	267	1,147	12	96
Social and political responsibilities of teachers	495	19	52	495	19	52
Population mobility	167	10	17	473	18	26
Academic freedom	- -	- -	- -	1,425	9	158
All stories featuring topics in headline and lead	13,027	208	63			

TABLE 13

COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGY TOPICS IN THE NEA CONVENTION PRESS COVERAGE

TOPICS	TOPIC IN HEADLINE AND LEAD			ALL STORIES NOTING TOPIC		
	Circ.in 1000's	No. of stories	Ave.Circ. per story in 1000's	Circ.in 1000's	No. of stories	Ave.Circ. per story in 1000's
Audio-visual and technology in general	2,348	52	45	12,695	166	76
"Teaching machines"	8,680	99	88	11,276	121	93
Educational television	531	8	66	10,557	143	74
"Speed reading" demonstration	2,802	21	133	3,380	36	130
Other demonstrations and exhibits	582	13	44	698	16	44
All stories featuring topics in headline and lead	14,943	193	77			

TABLE 14

CURRICULUM AND TEACHING TOPICS (EXCEPT COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGY) IN NEA CONVENTION PRESS COVERAGE

	TOPIC IN HEADLINE AND LEAD			ALL STORIES NOTING TOPIC		
	Circ.in 1000's	No. of stories	Ave.Circ. Per story in 1000's	Circ.in 1000's	No. of stories	Ave.Circ. Per story in 1000's
Brown attack on "self contained" classroom	4,706	40	118	4,978	46	108
Salk on teaching	1,115	11	101	1,388	14	99
Year-around school term (Gould)	884	21	42	906	22	41
Math teaching	803	3	268	1,339	5	268
Programs for "gifted children"	455	2	228	455	2	228
Miscellaneous general remarks on teaching	1,619	46	35	13,774	204	67
All stories featuring topics in headline and lead	9,630	123	78			

TABLE 15

PROFESSIONAL ISSUES AND COMMUNITY RELATIONS IN THE NEA CONVENTION PRESS COVERAGE

	TOPIC IN HEADLINE AND LEAD			ALL STORIES NOTING TOPIC		
	Circ.in 1000's	No. of stories	Ave.Circ. Per story in 1000's	Circ.in 1000's	No. of stories	Ave.Circ. Per story in 1000's
"Strike" issue, urban problems	4,994	70	71	12,279	275	44
Relations with parents	1,614	19	85	10,980	78	141
Certification standards, teacher education, salaries, shortage	285	13	22	17,217	321	54
Code of ethics	225	4	56	304	8	38
All stories featuring topics in headline and lead	7,118	106	67			

Appendix II-C

THE COMPARATIVE STUDY OF PRESS COVERAGE; GENERAL DESCRIPTION AND TABULATIONS OF FREQUENCIES AND TENDENCIES BY SOURCE, TYPE, AND EDUCATIONAL RELEVANCE

All material for the comparative study of press coverage came from metropolitan daily newspapers. Countries included in this study, newspapers used in each country, study periods, and number and percent of relevant items found and analyzed in each newspaper can be seen in Table 3. Table 2 summarizes the number of items by country and area.

The samples

The considerations and limitations which governed the selection of newspapers in each country must be taken into account in interpreting the meaning and comparability of the findings. The major consideration was that the sample should be representative, or at least indicative, of dominant policies and tendencies in the press systems of the countries, but not necessarily representative of the composition of news readership. Wherever possible, the most widely read and/or most authoritative newspapers were selected for study, but there was no attempt to weight data by circulation. The only "weighting" which occurred was the consequence of the different numbers of relevant items published by different newspapers and included in the national sample of all items.

Six of the seven U.S. dailies studied were on both the list of "15 superior papers" selected by newspaper editors (Editor & Publisher, April 12, 1960, p. 14) and the list of "the leading 15 dailies" picked by a poll of professors of journalism (Saturday Review, May 13, 1961, p. 60). The seventh, the New York Herald Tribune, was on the Saturday Review list only.

The British sample consisted of nine out of the ten "national dailies" (newspapers of national circulation) published in Great Britain at the time of the study. In the German Federal Republic (West Germany) all daily newspapers published in Hamburg and in West Berlin were included in the study. The press sample from the German Democratic Republic (East Germany) was limited to daily papers published in East Berlin. The Polish, Czechoslovak, and Hungarian samples included all major daily papers published in the capital cities of these countries, and most newspapers of national circulation. The Soviet sample was limited to the Moscow edition of the official organ of the government of the U.S.S.R., Izvestia, also circulating throughout the Soviet Union.

Study periods

Study periods were one week in duration in all countries except Great Britain (where the period was 13 days) and the Soviet Union (where it was 10 months, but of a more limited scope than in the other countries). Although there was no special attempt to make the periods overlapping, they did coincide in some countries. The assumption was that while the specific content of the coverage would naturally vary from time to time and from country to country, the general policies, tendencies, and dynamics of operation characteristic of each press system would be reflected in the systematic and detailed analysis of content at any time.

Screening and analysis

Every issue of the selected newspapers was screened in its entirety for relevant items appearing during the study period. The screening was done by the U.S. study team for the United States, West Germany, and East Germany; by the English study team for Great Britain; by commercial clipping services for Poland, Czechoslovakia, and Hungary. Soviet press clippings were obtained from the files of Izvestia by courtesy of the Schools Department Editor, and were limited to the editorial output of that Department. (The Soviet sample was treated separately in all analyses and was not included in Eastern Europe area totals.)

All analysis was done by the permanent team of trained U.S. analysts from the original clippings and in the original languages except for the Czech and Russian language materials; these were analyzed from translations made at the University of Illinois.

Instructions to analysts and the categories of analysis are reproduced in Appendix VI, Form A. The following series of tabulations deals with the results obtained from the first 11 items of Form A. (The topic analysis of the press coverage derived from the categories listed after Item 11 of Form A is tabulated in Appendix II-D.)

The unit of analysis was the press item. Except for Table 1, which gives the distribution of general editorial, sports, and advertising items by individual U.S. newspapers, all items from all newspapers selected for study in each country were lumped together and tabulated as a whole. All comparative tabulations dealt with general editorial items only, excluding sports (and, of course, advertising).

All items were considered of equal weight regardless of length, prominence, page position, etc. Although it might have been desirable to weight items by these factors, great differences in the sizes, types, makeup and news policies of the papers would have required the development of a system of equivalent weights which was not feasible for this study. (However, a system of measurement taking emphasis, attention, and news value into account within stories was developed and is used in the topic analysis in Appendix II-D.)

Critical tendency

A measure of directionality developed for this study is named "critical tendency." This measure is specific to the subject of the item, and should not be taken as necessarily indicative of critical outlook toward a system of education or of values, etc. It indicates support or criticism of subjects selected for press attention, and the generally supporting or critical nature of the selection process itself.

Each relevant item was rated on a 7-point scale of "critical tendency" ranging from "very critical, dissatisfied, opposed" (rating of 1) to "very satisfied, supporting, approving" (rating of 7), with "no tendency or balanced -- i.e. both support and criticism in about equal measure" in the middle (rating of 4). (See Appendix IV, Form A, Item 11.) It should be emphasized that these ratings pertain to general tendencies of items as wholes and relate to either (a) the position taken by the writer, etc., toward the event reported, or (b) the substantive nature of the event or comment reported. (Thus a critical comment upon an attack on some aspect of schools, for example, would be rated critical rather than supporting.)

Mean ratings and standard deviations of mean ratings of critical tendency have been tabulated. The lower the mean (below 4.0) the more "critical" the item as a whole; the higher the mean (above 4.0) the more "supporting" the item as a whole. The closer the mean to 4.0, the more balanced or "neutral-factual" the item as a whole.

The Tables

The first three Tables in this series provide information about the newspapers used in the samples of the different countries, the number of items each newspaper contributed to the national samples, and the total size, national composition, and critical tendency of the country and area samples. Except for Table 1, all tabulations deal with general editorial items only (excluding sports and advertising).

Tables 4, 5, and 6 show the distribution and critical tendency of items by source, type, and level of education discussed in each of the country and area samples.

A topic analysis of this material is described and the results tabulated in Appendix II-D.

TABLE 1

ALL RELEVANT ITEMS PUBLISHED IN SEVEN U. S. METROPOLITAN DAILY PAPERS

Newspapers	Totals (100%)	Number and percent of types of items: News, feature other editorial items		Sports		Advertising	
	N	N	%	N	%	N	%
ALL PAPERS	1336	609	45.6	136	10.2	591	44.2
New York Times	391	147	37.5	15	3.8	229	58.5
Chicago Tribune	228	110	48.2	38	16.7	80	35.1
Washington Post	124	80	64.5	17	13.7	27	21.8
Kansas City Star	205	78	38.0	6	3.6	119	58.6
St. Louis Post-Dispatch	120	78	65.0	22	18.3	20	16.7
New York Herald Tribune	165	69	41.8	10	6.1	86	52.1
Los Angeles Times	105	47	44.8	28	26.7	30	28.6

TABLE 2

RELEVANT NEWS, FEATURE, AND OTHER EDITORIAL ITEMS (EXCLUDING SPORTS); CRITICAL TENDENCY OF ITEMS, AND SHARE IN AREA TOTALS; ALL COUNTRIES

Countries and area totals	No. of items	Percent of area totals	Critical tendency Mean	S.D.
United States	609	100.0	4.3	1.2
WESTERN EUROPE (tot.)	332	100.0	4.2	1.4
Great Britain	173	52.1	3.8	1.1
G.F.R. (West Germany)	159	47.9	4.6	1.6
EASTERN EUROPE (tot.)	309	100.0	4.9	1.5
G.D.R. (East Germany)	165	53.4	5.1	1.7
Poland	29	9.4	4.8	1.3
Czechoslovakia	35	11.3	5.4	.9
Hungary	80	25.9	4.2	.9
U.S.S.R.	69	100.0	3.4	1.9

TABLE 3

STUDY PERIODS; NEWSPAPERS SCREENED; NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF RELEVANT NEWS, FEATURE, AND OTHER EDITORIAL ITEMS (EXCLUDING SPORTS); ALL COUNTRIES

Countries, areas, study periods and newspapers	No. of items	% of country total
United States (total)	609	100.0
Sept. 1 - 7, 1961		
New York Times	147	24.1
Chicago Tribune	110	18.1
Washington Post	80	13.1
Kansas City Star	78	12.8
St. Louis Post-Dispatch	78	12.8
New York Herald Tribune	69	11.3
Los Angeles Times	47	7.7
Great Britain (total)	173	100.0
Oct. 9 - 21, 1961		
London Daily Mail	31	17.9
Manchester Guardian	28	16.2
London Times	22	12.7
London Daily Telegraph	22	12.7
London Daily Sketch	20	11.6
London Daily Herald	15	8.7
London Daily Express	14	8.1
London Daily Worker	13	7.5
London Daily Mirror	8	4.6
G.F.R. (West Germany)(tot.)	159	100.0
Hamburg		
Oct. 31 - Nov. 6, 1961		
Die Welt	33	20.7
Hamburger Echo	19	11.9
Hamburger Abendblatt	18	11.3
Hamburger Morgenpost	7	4.4
Bild-Zeitung	6	3.8
Berlin, Nov. 3 - 9, 1961		
Tagesspiegel	29	18.2
Telegraf	23	14.5
Der Tag	13	8.2
Berliner Morgenpost	11	6.9
U.S.S.R. (total)	69	100.0
Moscow		
Jan. 1 - Nov. 1, 1961		
Izvestia	69	100.0
G.D.R. (E.Germany) (total)	165	100.0
Berlin		
Oct.29 - Nov.4,1961		
Berliner Zeitung	35	21.2
Junge Welt	30	18.2
Neues Deutschland	23	13.9
Neue Zeit	20	12.1
Der Morgen	19	11.5
National Zeitung	18	10.9
BZ Am Abend	12	7.3
Tribune	8	4.8
Poland (total)	29	100.0
Warsaw		
Sept. 1 - 7, 1960		
Trybuna Ludu	12	41.4
Kurier Polski	8	27.6
Zycie Warszawy	3	10.3
Express Wieczorny	3	10.3
Dziennik Ludowy	1	3.4
Sztandar Mlodych	1	3.4
Trybuna Mazowiecka	1	3.4
Czechoslovakia (tot.)	35	100.0
Prague		
Sept. 1 - 7, 1960		
Mlada Fronta	7	20.0
Prace	7	20.0
Lidova Democracie	6	17.1
Svobodne Slovo	6	17.1
Zamedelske Noviny	5	14.3
Rude Pravo	2	5.7
Vecerni	2	5.7
Hungary (total)	80	100.0
Budapest		
Sept. 1 - 7, 1960		
Nepszabadsag	26	32.5
Nepszava	20	25.0
Magyar Nemzet	17	21.2
Esti Hirlap	16	20.0
Nepsport	1	1.2

TABLE 4

SOURCE (AUTHORSHIP) OF RELEVANT NEWS, FEATURE, AND EDITORIAL ITEMS

(Continued on next page)

Country	Press agency, wire service			Unsigned, unspecified			Signed but identity unspecified			Staff byline, columnist		
	Percent	Critical tendency Mean	S.D.	Percent	Critical tendency Mean	S.D.	Percent	Critical tendency Mean	S.D.	Percent	Critical tendency Mean	S.D.
United States	20.5	4.2	1.0	52.8	4.2	1.0	1.8	3.6	2.3	23.2	4.5	1.5
WESTERN EUROPE (tot.)	9.0	4.0	1.9	56.8	4.1	1.2	5.4	3.4	1.2	25.3	4.7	1.4
Great Britain	.6	2.0	.0	66.5	3.9	1.0	9.8	3.2	.8	20.2	4.1	1.0
G.F.R. (West Germany)	18.3	4.0	1.9	46.5	4.4	1.5	.6	7.0	.0	30.8	5.2	1.4
EASTERN EUROPE (tot.)	20.4	5.1	1.9	44.7	4.6	1.2	1.3	5.3	1.5	26.9	5.2	1.6
G.D.R. (East Germany)	34.5	5.3	1.8	35.2	4.8	1.6	1.2	4.0	.0	24.3	5.4	2.0
Poland	---	---	---	55.3	4.8	.9	---	---	---	37.9	5.0	1.6
Czechoslovakia	---	---	---	51.4	5.1	.9	5.6	6.5	.7	28.6	5.8	.6
Hungary	7.5	3.0	1.3	57.5	4.1	.5	---	---	---	27.5	4.8	1.0
U.S.S.R.	---	---	---	20.3	3.8	2.0	17.4	3.8	2.2	11.6	3.3	1.4

TABLE 4

SOURCE (AUTHORSHIP) OF RELEVANT NEWS, FEATURE, AND EDITORIAL ITEMS
(Continued from previous page)

Country	Educational officials administrators			Teachers, professors, pedagogical experts			Students, parents		
	Percent	Critical tendency Mean	S.D.	Percent	Critical tendency Mean	S.D.	Percent	Critical tendency Mean	S.D.
United States	.7	2.8	1.5	.7	4.3	2.1	.3	3.5	2.2
WESTERN EUROPE (tot.)	.3	6.0	.0	.6	2.0	1.4	2.4	3.5	2.4
Great Britain	---	---	---	1.2	2.0	1.4	1.7	3.7	2.9
G.F.R. (West Germany)	.5	6.0	.0	---	---	---	3.2	3.4	2.5
EASTERN EUROPE (tot.)	2.9	5.2	1.2	2.6	4.4	1.8	1.3	6.0	1.4
G.D.R. (East Germany)	1.8	4.0	.0	1.2	7.0	.0	1.8	6.0	1.7
Poland	3.5	6.0	.0	3.5	3.0	.0	---	---	---
Czechoslovakia	8.6	5.7	1.5	2.9	4.0	.0	2.9	6.0	.0
Hungary	2.5	6.0	.0	5.0	3.5	1.0	---	---	---
U.S.S.R.	17.4	4.1	2.2	24.6	3.2	1.6	8.7	1.5	.5

TABLE 5

TYPES OF NEWS, FEATURE, AND EDITORIAL ITEMS RELEVANT TO SCHOOLS AND EDUCATION

Country	News, columns, articles			Photos, cartoons, comics			Editorials			Letters to editor		
	Percent	Critical tendency Mean	S.D.	Percent	Critical tendency Mean	S.D.	Percent	Critical tendency Mean	S.D.	Percent	Critical tendency Mean	S.D.
United States	87.4	4.3	1.0	6.2	4.2	1.8	3.6	3.8	2.1	2.8	3.2	2.1
WESTERN EUROPE (tot.)	88.0	4.3	1.4	2.4	4.3	.9	2.4	4.1	1.4	7.2	3.3	1.5
Great Britain	82.7	3.9	1.0	.6	3.0	.0	4.6	4.1	1.4	12.1	3.3	1.2
G.F.R. (West Germany)	93.7	4.6	1.6	4.4	4.4	.8	—	—	—	1.9	3.0	3.5
EASTERN EUROPE (tot.)	89.3	4.9	1.7	4.3	4.5	1.1	3.2	5.2	.8	3.2	5.4	1.8
G.D.R. (East Germany)	90.9	5.2	1.8	6.7	4.5	1.2	—	—	—	2.4	5.5	1.7
Poland	93.2	4.7	1.2	—	—	—	3.4	5.0	.0	3.4	7.0	.0
Czechoslovakia	80.0	5.3	1.0	—	—	—	11.4	5.5	.6	8.6	6.3	.6
Hungary	88.7	4.2	.9	2.5	4.0	.0	6.3	5.0	1.0	2.5	3.0	1.4
U.S.S.R.	42.0	4.1	1.6	—	—	—	—	—	—	58.0	2.9	1.9

TABLE 6

LEVEL AND TYPE OF EDUCATION DISCUSSED IN RELEVANT NEWS, FEATURE AND EDITORIAL ITEMS

Country	General, more than one, no specific level			Pre-school and primary school level			Secondary school level			Higher adult and specialized institutions			Private schools all levels		
	Percent	Critical tendency Mean	S.D.	Percent	Critical tendency Mean	S.D.	Percent	Critical tendency Mean	S.D.	Percent	Critical tendency Mean	S.D.	Percent	Critical tendency Mean	S.D.
United States	56.7	4.3	1.3	7.4	4.2	.7	4.1	4.4	1.4	31.8	4.3	1.0	18.4	4.2	.9
WESTERN EUROPE (tot)	56.0	4.3	1.4	4.3	4.1	1.4	12.3	4.1	1.5	27.4	4.2	1.5	4.8	4.3	1.4
Great Britain	70.5	3.8	1.3	2.9	3.0	1.0	9.3	3.4	.8	17.3	4.3	1.2	2.3	5.0	1.2
G.F.R. (West Germany)	40.3	5.0	1.6	5.6	4.8	1.2	15.7	4.6	1.7	38.4	4.1	1.6	7.5	4.0	1.4
EASTERN EUROPE (tot)	38.2	4.9	1.5	7.4	4.8	1.3	22.0	4.8	1.5	32.4	5.0	1.6			
G.D.R. (East Germany)	27.9	5.1	1.9	3.1	5.6	1.9	30.9	4.9	1.7	38.2	5.4	1.7			
Poland	58.6	4.9	1.4	---	---	---	---	---	---	41.4	4.8	1.1			
Czechoslovakia	62.9	5.4	1.0	14.3	6.0	.0	11.4	5.0	1.2	11.4	5.3	1.3			
Hungary	41.3	4.3	1.1	16.2	4.1	.5	16.2	4.2	1.2	26.3	4.1	.9			
U.S.S.R.	58.0	3.5	1.9	11.6	2.9	1.6	4.3	2.7	1.2	26.1	3.6	2.0			

Appendix II-D

THE COMPARATIVE STUDY OF PRESS SYSTEMS: TOPIC ANALYSIS

Topic analysis is a procedure developed for this study. The technique is designed to permit the detailed comparative analysis of newspaper content of great diversity, and to focus the findings upon subject areas of special interest. Topic analysis yields measures indicative of the processes of composition and structuring which characterize message systems.

The message systems studied were the national samples of newspaper items described in Appendix II-C. Sizes, news and editorial policies, makeup, and headline styles of the newspapers varied widely; therefore, it did not seem feasible to assess and compare the total position of "education news" in the general flow of items appearing in the various newspapers. The processes of composition and structuring characteristic of press systems were to be seen as expressed in and through the samples of items relevant to teachers, students, schools, and education.

TERMS AND PROCEDURE OF THE ANALYSIS

News stories, columns, feature articles, pictures, editorials and letters to editors selected for analysis (on the basis of criteria and considerations described in Appendix II-C) are called items. All items of a sample were treated alike in the topic analysis, regardless of type (news, feature, editorial, etc.), source (wire service, local, etc.), level or kind of education discussed, or newspaper printing the items. (These variables were dealt with in Appendix II-C.)

A subject explicitly noted or discussed in an item is called topic. One or more passages noting a single topic in an item constitute a reference. A general subject area representing a number of topics is called a topic group. References to a topic group include every reference made to each topic constituting the topic group. (The number of items, total number of references, and number of references per item in each country and area sample appear in Table 1.)

Measures employed in the analysis were based on all references (attention); references featured in headlines, leads, etc., (emphasis); the evaluative direction of references (critical tendency); and certain relationships among references (structure). These measures are further defined and explained below under "Topical Composition and Structure."

The topic analysis was done by the team of analysts and with the instrument of analysis described in Appendix II-C. The instrument is reproduced in Appendix VI-A.

Topic analysis began with the development of a list of terms (topics) designating subjects to which reference was found, or was likely to be found, in the material. The list encompassed not only subjects of special interest but also the greatest possible diversity of topics with which the material might deal. In this way, characteristics of the flow of messages in general could be observed within the area of special interest. It was assumed, for example, that if a press system gives great and critical attention to problems of, say, alcoholism, it is likely to do so within the system of messages dealing with such apparently distant subjects as teachers and schools. In other words, one assumption underlying topic analysis was that a message system representing any aspect of the relationships between a press system and a social system displays certain characteristics of the entire structure of those relationships.

A list of about 230 topics was developed for the present study. These topics were grouped under 34 headings. (The list of topics and topic groups is reproduced in Appendix VI-A, Form A, Section II.)

The basic unit of topic analysis was the reference to a topic in an item. (The number of references to the same topic in the same item was not recorded; one or more references constituted a single unit.) In addition to recording the occurrence of (i.e. reference to) all topics in all items composing the sample, analysts also noted when a reference occurred in the headline, lead, or (when the item did not have the conventional news story structure) as the "main point" or subject of the item, and whether the reference was supportive (favorable), critical (unfavorable) or neutral (balanced) toward the topic in the context of the item.

TOPICAL COMPOSITION AND STRUCTURE

The analysis was designed to establish and measure certain characteristics of the composition and structure of the message systems. Characteristics of composition included the number and nature of topics composing the total samples; the number and nature of topics composing each topic group; the processes of selective attention and of relative emphasis (indicative of "news values"); and the direction and magnitude of critical tendency involved in these processes. An indication of structure was obtained from correlations between the occurrence of topics of different topic groups in the same items. A discussion of the measures of these characteristics of composition and structure follows.

Attention

One feature of the composition of a message system is the selective process by which the constituent elements are assembled. What topics are attended to, with what frequency, and from what point of view, are questions the measures of "attention" attempted to answer.

Frequency of topic attention is the number of items making reference to a topic. Topic group attention is the sum of such references made to all topics composing the topic group. If an item notes one topic included in a topic group, it makes a contribution of one to the figure expressing the frequency of attention to that topic group; another item making reference to five topics included in that topic group adds five to the attention total.

For that reason, the measure of relative allocation (proportion) of attention was computed on a different basis for topics and for topic groups. As the basic unit of attention was reference to a topic in an item, relative allocation of attention to topics could be expressed as the percent of all items in the sample. For topic groups, however, all references to the component topics were summed regardless of how many of these came from the same items. Relative allocation of attention to topic groups, therefore, was expressed as the percent of all references to all topics occurring in the entire sample, rather than as the percent of items in the sample. (Table 1 gives the total number of references to all topics in each sample.)

Emphasis

Another feature of the composition of a message system is the amount of stress placed upon different topics selected for attention. Reference to a topic in a headline, lead or as the principal subject of press items is indication of emphasis. What topics are given headline-and-lead or "main point" emphasis, with what frequency, and from what point of view, are questions measures of emphasis attempted to answer.

Frequency of topic emphasis is expressed as the number of items in each national or area sample which featured a certain topic in headline, lead or as the main subject of the item. The emphasis figure for topic groups is the sum of items featuring any topic included in the topic group. Only one topic was recorded as featured in the headline or lead or as the "main point" of each press item. Therefore, the sum of all such featured topics is the same as the sum of items featuring topics included in the topic group. Consequently, the relative emphasis given to both topics and topic groups could be expressed as the percent of all items in the sample.

Ranks of emphasis used in the tabulations were based on these frequencies and percentages. Critical tendencies (described below) were mean scores obtained from the judgment of directionality of topics when given headline, lead, or "main point" emphasis.

Critical tendency

When recording reference to a topic, analysts also recorded their judgment of the directionality, or critical tendency, of the reference. Some general comments on critical tendency as a measure of directionality were made in Appendix II-C. In this study critical tendency was noted on a 3-point scale rather than on a 7-point scale as in Appendix II-C. It was felt that gross judgments focusing on clear-cut differences in the tendency of references to topics would be more reliable than the more sensitive discriminations called for in judging an item as a whole.

Critical tendency has been computed for attention (all references to a topic) and for emphasis (headline, lead, or "main point") for both topics and topic groups. Two measures of critical tendency are given: a mean of all scores recorded for a certain topic (or for all topics in a certain topic group), and standard deviation providing a measure of variability in the tendencies.

The mean critical tendency for a topic or topic group is a rough indication of the average direction and amount of supportive (or favorable) vs. critical (or unfavorable) attention or emphasis accorded to it. The meaning of the tendency is specifically related to the nature of the topic. For example, the meaning of a mean score indicating supportive attention and emphasis given to the topic of "integration, desegregation, segregation" in the U.S. sample can be established only by ascertaining the general nature of the references, which, in this case, were mostly to events in the direction of school integration.

As originally computed, mean ratings of critical tendency ranged from 1.00 (very critical or unfavorable) through 2.00 (neutral or balanced) to 3.00 (very supportive, favorable). For ease of tabulation and convenience of reading, decimals have been converted to full numbers and the scale transposed so that directionality can be indicated by plus or minus signs. Thus the neutral or balanced position is indicated on all Tables in this section by the figure zero (0); the supportive, favorable direction by the plus sign; and the critical, unfavorable direction by the minus sign. The smaller the figure, of course, the less pronounced the tendency in either direction. The larger the figure (up to a maximum of +10 or -10), the more pronounced the tendency in the supportive or critical direction. Standard deviations have also been converted from decimals into whole numbers. It is important to keep in mind, therefore, that measures of critical tendency given in the form of whole numbers actually stand for tenths of a scale point on a 3-point scale.

News value index

The allocation of attention and of emphasis in the press is indicative of an aspect of the dynamics of composition called "news value." A measure developed to reflect both attention and emphasis and to provide a summary index of "newsworthiness" of different topics is called the "news value index."

The news value index is the sum of (1) the percent of emphasis out of all attention accorded to a topic and (2) the product of the emphasis and attention percentages. It might be expressed in the following formula:

$$NVI = \frac{E\%}{A\%} + (E\%)(A\%)$$

where NVI = news value index
E% = percent of items featuring topic in headline, lead, or as "main point" (emphasis)
A% = percent of items making any reference to topic (attention)

The index is thus computed by first dividing the percent of emphasis by the percent of attention. What is obtained is a percent of two percentages, indicating the percent of items giving headline, lead, or "main point" emphasis to a topic out of the percent of items in the sample according any attention (making any reference) to the topic. This element of the measure places obvious stress on emphasis as a key element of "news value." It is, however, highly unstable by itself. For example, if Topic X is noted in 10% of all items and headlined in 5%, the percentage of emphasis out of all attention would be 50%; however, another topic, say Topic Y, noted in only 1% of items but featured in all these would get a percentage share of emphasis out of all attention of 100%. This difference may come about for two reasons. Topic Y may be both more infrequent and more newsworthy than Topic X. Or, Topic X may, indeed, be as newsworthy as Topic Y, but more widely discussed (more frequently noted in items) thus reducing its percentage share of emphasis out of all attention. So, while the likelihood of being headlined when noted is an important aspect of the news value of a topic, a reliable measure of that value should also include some indication of the general amount of attention accorded to that topic.

The second step in computing the news value index reflects the general amount of attention accorded to a topic as an element of news value which is further enhanced by the proportion of emphasis. The percent of attention is multiplied by the percent of emphasis, and the product added to the previously computed percentage of emphasis out of all attention.

The resulting index of news value is highly weighted by the measure of emphasis. But the index also permits a topic which receives frequent notice to obtain a relatively high score despite the fact that the higher frequency of mention is likely to reduce its proportion of emphasis. Attention is thus taken into account as a boundary condition of newsworthiness which, in certain instances, may add to the relative news value of a topic.

When the percent of items giving headline emphasis to a topic fell below the criteria for tabulating emphasis percentages (as explained below), the attention percent was used as an index of news value. In this way all topics received a news value index, and a rank based on that index.

News value index was not computed for topic groups because, as noted above, the meaning of attention percentages in topic groups differs from that in topics, and the difference would have confused the meaning of the index.

Structure: topic group correlations

A set of relationships indicating which elements of message systems are most likely to occur together is called "structure." Certain aspects of the structure of the press samples were assessed and compared through the procedure of correlation.

In order to reduce the number of variables and increase the number of observations to be correlated, it was decided to use topic groups as variables, and the total number of references to topics (attention) in the topic groups as the values to be correlated. This meant, however, that generally low correlations would result. Press items deal with topics in the same areas (topic groups) more frequently and regularly than they do with different subject areas. But to the extent that they do deal with different subject areas in the same items, they indicate an underlying structure of connections characteristic of the message systems they compose, and of certain aspects of the system of social relations from which they spring.

Only the two highest positive correlations between topic groups were tabulated. In light of the generally low correlations, a coefficient of +.10 was used as the cutoff point under which a correlation was not tabulated even if it happened to be among the two highest for a topic group.

The tabulations based on these correlations show which subject areas (topic groups) are most likely to be associated with which other subject areas in the items of each press sample.

In addition to the tabulations, a set of Figures gives graphic expression to the structure of topic group correlations. These Figures, called "corregrams," depict topic groups as circles; the two highest correlations between topic groups (when r = +.10 or above) are indicated by two lines connecting the circles.

THE TABLES

The first two Tables provide information about the size of the samples and the criteria used for the inclusion of topics and topic groups in the tabulations. Tables 3 - 12 present the results of the topic analysis by countries and areas. These Tables are arranged in sets, numbered 3.1, 3.2, 3.3; 4.1, 4.2, 4.3, etc. with the first number identifying the country or area and the second number marking the type of Table within each set. Topic group structure corregrams are included for each country. Tables 13 and 14 present rank order comparisons for topic group attention and topic news value by countries and areas. Detailed explanation of these Tables and Figures follows.

Size of the samples (Table 1)

Table 1 gives the number of items and topics in all samples. The center column contains the total number of references to all topics in each sample. As has been explained above, this figure was the basis for computing the percentage share of attention devoted to topic groups. (The percentage share of attention as well as of emphasis devoted to topics has been computed on the basis of the number of items.) The column on the right shows the average number of different topics per item in each sample. These figures are indicative of the average length and topical complexity or diversity of items in the samples. (The source of items, time, and method of collection, and other aspects of the analysis are dealt with in Appendix II-C.)

Criteria for inclusion (Table 2)

The large number of topics used in the analysis (reproduced in Appendix VI-A) served as a broad and fine net with which to catch a great variety of fish. Once caught and sorted out, however, the variety had to be reduced to manageable size and complexity.

The minimum standards adopted as criteria for the inclusion of topics and topic groups in the tabulations had to take into account the role of emphasis and of attention in the composition of message systems, the widely differing sample sizes, and the special meaning of "significance" in an analysis of news treatment. The criteria decided upon after much experimentation were necessarily arbitrary. They resulted from what appeared to be the least unsatisfactory compromise between conflicting requirements. There was an obvious need for a minimum standard a topic or topic group had to meet to be considered present in the different samples in sufficient amount to form the basis for a reasonably reliable inference about the nature of the content. But there was also a need for not ignoring small numbers. The treatment of unusual events may be significant in a message system composed of news items. Purely probabilistic tests of "significance" would be misplaced and misused as indicators of news significance. If "man bites dog" is more newsworthy than "dog bites man," a relatively few items or small number of references to certain topics may be most indicative of certain dynamics of the treatment of news in different systems.

Table 2 shows the criteria finally adopted for the inclusion of topics and topic groups in the tabulations which follow. The primary criterion was the amount of headline, lead, or "main point" emphasis given to topics and topic groups. The minimum standard for inclusion in the larger samples (150 or more items) was over 1% emphasis. In other words, a topic was listed if it was featured in the headlines and leads (or as the main point) of more than 1% of the items in the sample. If the combined topics of a topic group met the criterion of a minimum of 1% emphasis even though no single topic did, the group itself was listed without the topics composing it.

The first two columns of Table 2 give the minimum number of items and the corresponding minimum percentages over 1%. It can be seen that the 1% minimum emphasis rule made the actual number of items in which a topic or topic group had to be headlined for inclusion in the tabulations range from a high of 7 to a low of 2. This 2-item minimum emphasis rule was then applied to the small samples (less than 150 items), raising the minimum percentages of emphasis, according to sample size, from 2.9% in the U.S.S.R. to 6.9% in the Polish sample. All other measures were tabulated for all topics and topic groups meeting minimum standards of emphasis.

There was, however, a secondary and alternate criterion for inclusion. The third and fourth columns of Table 2 deal with that criterion. A topic or topic group could be included in the tabulations either by meeting minimum standards of emphasis described above, or by meeting minimum (but considerable higher) standards of attention. The reason for that criterion was the need to compensate for differences in the ratio of emphasis to attention in the different samples (and thus to avoid giving more detailed tabulations to countries with a higher proportion of topics featured in headlines), and the related need to recognize the potential significance of subjects rarely headlined but frequently noted in the press.

Topics receiving attention (i.e. noted anywhere) in at least 10% of all items in a sample were included in the tabulations even if they did not meet minimum standards of emphasis. (For such topics no measures of emphasis were tabulated.) Topic groups with a combined frequency of attention to all component topics of at least 10% were also included, even when individual topics did not meet the 10% test. (For such topic groups no individual topics were tabulated.) In the very small samples (Poland and Czechoslovakia) the minimum attention standard was raised to 20%. Figures in the "number of items" column of Table 2, corresponding to minimum percents of attention, show that no topic or topic group could be included on the basis of attention alone without being noted in at least 6 items in the smallest sample.

The fifth (right hand) column of Table 2 shows the percent of all references to all topics (center column of Table 1) corresponding to minimum standards for inclusion on the basis of attention alone. These figures were not part of the criteria for inclusion and are given for information only.

Findings (Tables 3 - 12)

Three Tables and a corregram for each country, and two Tables each for Western and Eastern Europe, present the findings of the topic analysis. The first

Table in each set deals with the composition of topic groups and gives measures of emphasis and attention. The second Table in each set deals with topics alone. The third Table presents information on topic group correlations, computed for countries only.

Topic group composition. Tables 3.1, 4.1, etc. through 12.1 show which topic groups and topics met the criteria for each country and area sample. The order of presentation is by topic group emphasis rank. Topic groups are capitalized in all Tables.

Topics composing the topic groups (and meeting the criteria for inclusion) are listed under the topic group headings. Measures of emphasis, attention, and critical tendency are given for both topic groups and topics (except for topic group attention percents which, as explained previously were computed on a basis different from the other measures, and are presented in the third of the sets of country Tables). The topic group measures express the sum of measures found in all topics grouped under the topic groups as indicated in the complete listing of topics on Form A, Appendix VI-A. However, the sums of topic measures actually tabulated do not necessarily add up to the topic group totals because many topics did not meet the criteria for inclusion and do not appear on these listings.

Topical composition. Tables 3.2, 4.2, etc. through 12.2 list only topics composing each country and area sample. These are, of course, the same topics listed by topic groups in the first Table of each set of Tables. But here the topics are arranged in order of news value rank. News value indexes are provided along with emphasis and attention ranks and percentages for each topic. These Tables highlight the operation of different kinds of priorities ordering the topical composition of different press systems.

Topic group structure. The third in the sets of Tables for countries only, numbered 3.3, 4.3, etc. through 10.3, present the results of the topic group correlations. Topic groups are listed in order of attention rank, i.e. according to the number of references made to all topics included in the topic groups in all items of each country sample. The number of references and the percentage share of that number out of all references to all topics in the sample are given under the heading of "Attention." The columns entitled "Two highest correlations with other topic groups" indicate other subject areas most frequently associated in the same items with each topic group. The rank number identifies the topic group correlated; the correlation coefficient indicates the relative magnitude of the correlation.

For example, the highest ranking topic group in the U.S. sample (Table 3.3) is SCHOOL SYSTEM, ORGANIZATION, ADMINISTRATION. (For a more precise interpretation of the meaning of topic group titles see Tables on topic group composition.) This topic group is most closely correlated with SCHOOL FACILITIES, RESOURCES (Rank number 3, r = .36) and SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS (Rank number 11, r = .34). In other words, when topics included under SCHOOL SYSTEM, ORGANIZATION, ADMINISTRATION occurred in the U.S. press items, other subjects most likely to occur in the same items were topics included under the other two topic groups.

Figures 1 to 10 give graphic expression to the findings on topic group structure. These Figures, called corregrams, are based on the correlations explained above. Circles represent topic groups. Lines connecting the circles stand for the correlations shown in the Tables on topic group structure.

The labels identifying the circles are abbreviations of the full titles of the topic groups. These titles and the actual composition of the topic groups in each national sample should be carefully observed before interpreting the meaning of the corregrams.

The size of the circle standing for a topic group gives a rough indication of the attention rank of that topic group. The topic group which contains the largest number of references is represented by the largest circle. Next come two circles of equal size which stand for topic groups ranked second and third in amount of attention. Ranks four, five, and six are represented by three smaller circles of equal size. Ranks seven through ten are represented by four yet smaller circles of equal size. Finally, topic groups ranked eleven and beyond are represented by the smallest circles.

The direction of the correlations is represented by arrows at the end of the lines which stand for the correlations themselves. The correlation between two topic groups is of course the same in either direction. However, a correlation which might be among the two highest for one of two groups is not necessarily among the two highest for the other of the two groups. For example, Topic Group A might have its highest correlation with Topic Group B. While this correlation between A and B is the same for both groups, Topic Group B might have a higher correlation with Topic Group C which is not, in turn, highly correlated with Topic Group A. In such a case the direction of the arrows would be from A to B and from B to C.

The higher of the two correlations between two topic groups is indicated by a solid line. The second highest correlation is represented by a broken line. When either of the two highest correlations is reciprocal between two groups, the lines run parallel. The placement and distance of the circles is dictated by convenience and has no significance.

Rank order comparisons (Tables 13, 14)

Table 13 presents topic group emphasis ranks across all countries and areas. It should be noted again that the specific topical composition of the topic groups of each country (and area) should be taken into consideration in interpreting these comparisons.

Table 14 presents topic news value ranks (based on news value index) across all countries and areas.

In both of these comparisons, only those categories (topic groups and topics) were listed which were ranked on the measures used among the 10 highest in any country or area.

TABLE 1

OCCURRENCE AND AVERAGE NUMBER OF TOPICS PER STORY; ALL COUNTRIES

	No. of items	All references to all topics	Ave. no. of different topics per item
United States	609	4,555	7.5
WESTERN EUROPE (tot.)	332	2,341	7.1
Great Britain	173	1,256	7.3
West Germany	159	1,085	6.8
EASTERN EUROPE (tot.)	309	1,837	5.9
East Germany	165	1,129	6.8
Poland	29	212	7.3
Czechoslovakia	35	232	6.6
Hungary	80	264	3.3
U.S.S.R.	69	1,097	15.8

TABLE 2

CRITERIA FOR INCLUSION OF TOPICS AND TOPIC GROUPS IN THE TABULATIONS

	EMPHASIS OR ATTENTION				
	Minimum number of items headlining topic or topic group		Minimum number of items noting topic or topic group		
	No. of items	% of all items	No. of items	% of all items	% of all references to all topics
United States	7	1.1	61	10.0	1.3
WESTERN EUROPE	4	1.2	34	10.2	1.4
Great Britain	2	1.1	18	10.4	1.4
West Germany	2	1.2	16	10.0	1.5
EASTERN EUROPE	4	1.3	31	10.0	1.7
East Germany	2	1.2	17	10.3	1.5
Poland	2	6.9	6	20.7	2.8
Czechoslovakia	2	5.7	7	20.0	3.0
Hungary	2	2.5	8	10.0	3.0
U.S.S.R	2	2.9	7	10.1	.6

TABLE 3.1

TOPIC GROUP COMPOSITION, U. S.; MEASURES OF EMPHASIS, ATTENTION, AND CRITICAL TENDENCY

Top. group emphasis rank	Topic groups (capitalized) and topics	EMPHASIS			ATTENTION		
		N	%	Critical tendency Mean (SD)	N	%	Critical tendency Mean (SD)
1	SCHOOL SYSTEM, ORGANIZATION, ADMINISTRATION	78	12.8	+1 (6)	647	**	+1 (5)
	Enrollments, openings for students	27	4.4	+3 (5)	162	26.6	+2 (4)
	Faculty, staff, personnel policies	16	2.6	-1 (3)	59	9.7	0 (3)
	Boards, trustees, elected officials	11	1.8	+4 (7)	89	14.6	-1 (5)
	Courses and curriculum	10	1.6	+2 (4)	53	8.7	+2 (5)
	Educational reform, legislation	7	1.1	-4 (8)	99	16.3	0 (6)
	Administration, administrators	*			129	21.2	0 (4)
2	SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS	71	11.7	+5 (7)	191	**	+4 (7)
	Integration, desegregation, segregation	60	9.9	+5 (7)	82	13.5	+5 (7)
3	VITAL STATISTICS; PERSONAL, FAMILY TOPICS	68	11.2	0 (2)	207	**	0 (3)
	Obituaries, birth notices	36	5.9	0 (0)	42	6.9	0 (0)
	Society notices; engagement, marriage, etc.	20	3.3	0 (0)	33	5.4	0 (2)
	Parent-child relations involving school	*			74	13.4	0 (3)
4	FINANCIAL ASPECTS OF SCHOOLS, EDUCATION	51	8.4	+2 (6)	204	**	+1 (5)
	Government support, grants	17	2.8	+2 (7)	31	5.1	+2 (6)
	Scholarships, stipends	13	2.1	+3 (5)	56	9.2	+2 (5)
	Cost of schools to students, parents; taxes	7	1.1	+3 (8)	46	7.5	0 (4)
	Private gifts, grants	7	1.1	+1 (4)	13	2.1	+1 (4)
5	SPECIAL EVENTS, ACTIVITIES	44	7.2	+1 (4)	208	**	+1 (4)
	School opening	26	4.3	+1 (4)	129	21.2	+1 (3)
	Graduation, commencement	11	1.8	+1 (3)	20	3.3	+1 (2)
6	SCHOOL FACILITIES, RESOURCES	29	4.8	+1 (6)	312	**	0 (4)
	Buildings, classrooms	14	2.3	0 (6)	121	19.9	0 (5)
	Supply of teachers	*			63	10.3	0 (4)
7	TEACHING AND TEACHERS	28	4.6	+2 (6)	310	**	+1 (4)
	Teaching (and research) tasks, responsibilities	7	1.1	+1 (4)	118	19.4	+1 (3)
8	SPECIALIZED EDUCATIONAL AIMS AND FUNCTIONS	24	3.9	+1 (5)	154	**	+3 (5)
9	POLITICS, GOVERNMENT	23	3.8	-1 (6)	328	**	0 (5)
	Legislation; government officials and agencies	8	1.3	-4 (5)	145	23.8	-1 (5)
	Courts, law, constitution	*			83	13.6	+1 (5)

(Continued)

TABLE 3.1 (continued)

		EMPHASIS			ATTENTION		
Top. group emphasis rank	Topic groups (capitalized) and topics	N	%	Critical tendency Mean (SD)	N	%	Critical tendency Mean (SD)
10	LEARNING, STUDY, STUDENT PROGRESS	22	3.6	+2 (7)	98	**	+2 (5)
	Failures, dropouts	7	1.1	-7 (5)	13	2.1	-4 (5)
11	OTHER COUNTRIES; NATIONAL MINORITIES	20	3.3	+4 (7)	235	**	+2 (6)
	International exchange, contacts	11	1.8	+5 (5)	35	5.7	+3 (5)
12	STUDENT LIFE	19	3.1	+1 (6)	108	**	+1 (5)
13	HEALTH, MEDICINE, PHYSICAL EDUCATION	17	2.8	+4 (5)	115	**	+1 (4)
	Medical and nursing education	9	1.5	+4 (5)	66	10.8	+1 (3)
14	VIOLENCE, ACCIDENTS, CATASTROPHIES	16	2.6	-1 (4)	60	**	-3 (5)
	Murder, attempted murder	9	1.5	-2 (4)	46	7.5	-1 (3)
15.5	BUSINESS, INDUSTRY, LABOR, PRODUCTION	13	2.1	0 (6)	219	**	0 (3)
15.5	ARTS AND HUMANITIES	13	2.1	+2 (4)	179	**	+1 (4)
17.5	CRIME	10	1.6	-1 (3)	21	**	-2 (4)
17.5	SCIENCE, SCIENTISTS, TECHNOLOGY	10	1.6	+2 (6)	200	**	+1 (3)
	Physical and natural science, scientists	*			67	11.0	0 (2)
19	RELIGION AND THE SCHOOLS	7	1.1	0 (6)	157	**	0 (3)
	Parochial schools, religious education	*			68	11.2	0 (2)
20	AIMS, VALUES OF EDUCATION	7	1.1	+7 (5)	89	**	+5 (5)

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*Topic did not meet minimum criteria for tabulation of emphasis.

**Topic group attention percents are given in Table 3.3. They were computed on the basis of the total number of references rather than on the basis of the total number of items used for computing all percentages in this Table.

TABLE 3.2

TOPICAL COMPOSITION, U. S.; MEASURES OF NEWS VALUE, EMPHASIS, AND ATTENTION

Topics	NEWS VALUE Rank	NEWS VALUE Index	EMPHASIS Rank	EMPHASIS %	ATTENTION Rank	ATTENTION %
Integration, desegregation, segregation	1	207.0	1	9.9	10	13.5
Enrollments, openings for students	2	133.5	3	4.4	1	26.6
Obituaries, birth notices	3	126.2	2	5.9	21	6.9
School opening	4	111.5	4	4.3	3.5	21.2
Society notices; engagement, marriage, etc.	5	78.9	5	3.3	23	5.4
Government support, grants	6	69.2	6	2.8	24	5.1
Graduation, commencement	7	60.4	11	1.8	25	3.3
Buildings, classrooms	8	57.4	8	2.3	5	19.9
Private gifts, grants	9	54.7	19	1.1	26.5	2.1
Faculty, staff, personnel policies	10	52.0	7	2.6	16	9.7
Failures, dropouts	11	50.3	19	1.1	26.5	2.1
Scholarships, stipends	12	42.1	9	2.1	17	9.2
International exchange, contacts	13	41.9	11	1.8	22	5.7
Boards, trustees, elected officials	14	38.6	11	1.8	8	14.6
Legislation; government officials and agencies	15	36.4	16	1.3	2	23.8
Courses and curriculum	16	32.3	13	1.6	18	8.7
Medical and nursing education	17	30.0	14.5	1.5	14	10.8
Murder, attempted murder	18	29.0	14.5	1.5	19.5	7.5
Teaching (and research) tasks, responsibilities	19	27.0	19	1.1	6	19.4
Educational reform, legislation	20	24.6	19	1.1	7	16.3
Cost of schools to students, parents; taxes	21	22.9	19	1.1	19.5	7.5
Administration, administrators	22	21.2	*		3.5	21.2
Courts, law, constitution	23	13.6	*		9	13.6
Parent-child relations involving school	24	13.4	*		11	13.4
Parochial schools, religious education	25	11.2	*		12	11.2
Physical and natural science, scientists	26	11.0	*		13	11.0
Supply of teachers	27	10.3	*		15	10.3

*Topic did not meet minimum criteria for tabulation of emphasis measures.

TABLE 3.3

TOPIC GROUP STRUCTURE, U.S.; MEASURES OF ATTENTION AND CORRELATIONS

Att'n Rank	Topic groups	ATTENTION		TWO HIGHEST CORRELATIONS WITH OTHER TOPIC GROUPS			
		N	%	Rank Number[1]	r	Rank Number[1]	r
1	SCHOOL SYSTEM, ORGANIZATION, ADMINISTRATION	647	14.2	3	.36	11	.34
2	POLITICS, GOVERNMENT	328	7.2	11	.31	1	.26
3	SCHOOL FACILITIES, RESOURCES	312	6.8	1	.36	9	.25
4	TEACHING AND TEACHERS	310	6.8	12	.20	8	.17
5	OTHER COUNTRIES; NATIONAL MINORITIES	235	5.2	11	.26	2	.25
6	BUSINESS, INDUSTRY, LABOR, PRODUCTION	219	4.8	3	.24	10	.18
7	SPECIAL EVENTS, ACTIVITIES	208	4.6	1	.18	16	.15
8	VITAL STATISTICS; PERSONAL, FAMILY TOPICS	207	4.5	4	.17		*
9	FINANCIAL ASPECTS OF SCHOOLS, EDUCATION	204	4.5	3	.25	1	.18
10	SCIENCE, SCIENTISTS, TECHNOLOGY	200	4.3	6	.18	4	.16
11	SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS	191	4.2	1	.34	2	.31
12	ARTS AND HUMANITIES	179	3.9	4	.20	10	.15
13	RELIGION AND THE SCHOOLS	157	3.4	4	.10		*
14	SPECIALIZED EDUCATIONAL AIMS AND FUNCTIONS	154	3.4	1	.28	11	.26
15	HEALTH, MEDICINE, PHYSICAL EDUCATION	115	2.5	18	.14	4	.13
16	STUDENT LIFE	108	2.4	7	.15	4	.10
17	LEARNING, STUDY, STUDENT PROGRESS	98	2.1	18	.30	10	.15
18	AIMS, VALUES OF EDUCATION	89	1.9	17	.30	4	.15
19	VIOLENCE, ACCIDENTS, CATASTROPHIES	60	1.3	11	.16	2	.15
20	CRIME	21	.5	2	.25		*

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[1] "Rank Number" refers to figure in the extreme left hand column and is given to identify topic groups correlated.

*Correlation coefficient (r) less than +.10.

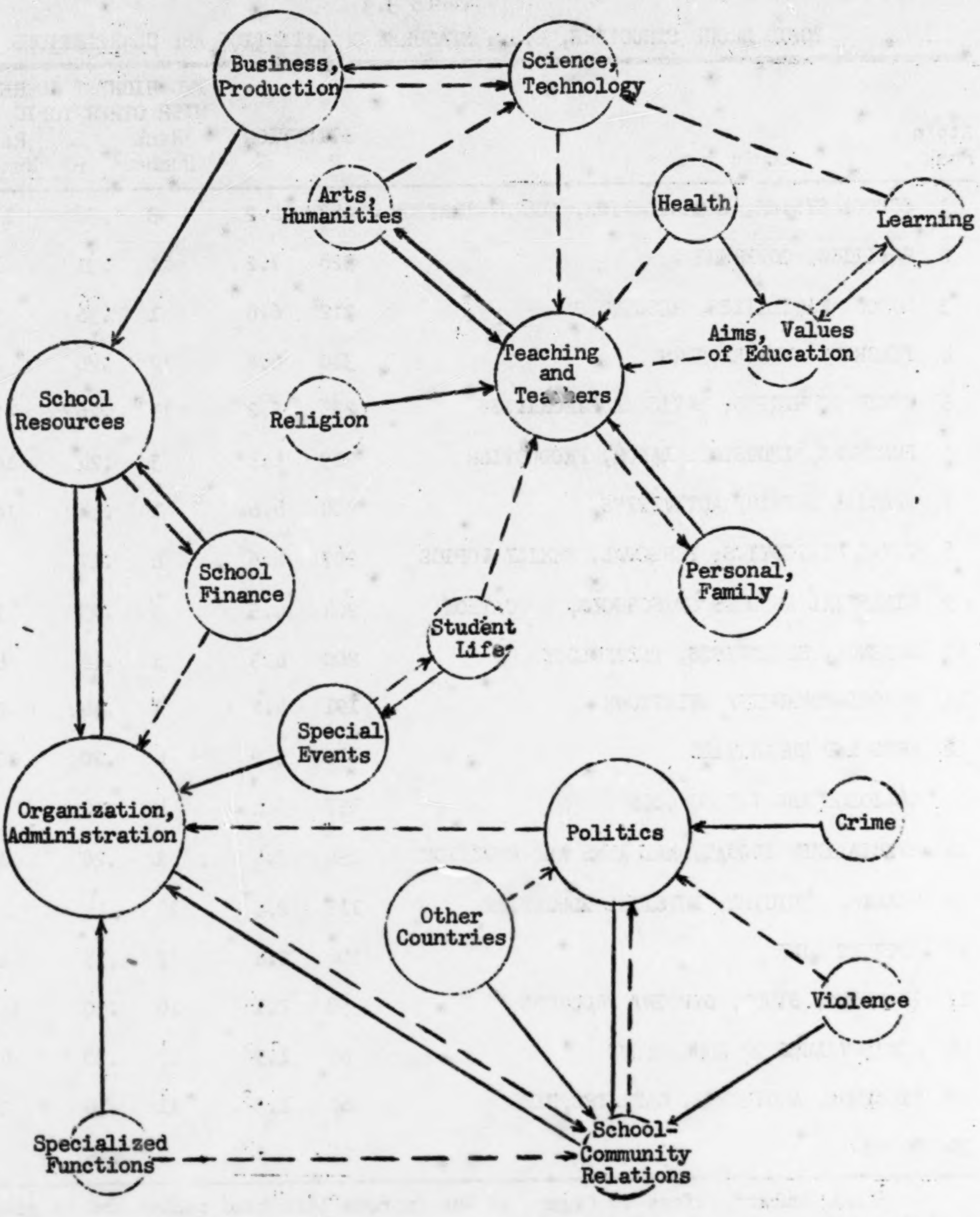
Business, Production
Science, Technology
Arts, Humanities
Health
Learning
Aims, Values of Education
Teaching and Teachers
School Resources
Religion
School Finance
Personal, Family
Student Life
Special Events
Organization, Administration
Politics
Crime
Other Countries
Violence
Specialized Functions
School-Community Relations

FIGURE 1

TOPIC GROUP STRUCTURE CORREGRAM, U.S.

TABLE 4.1

TOPIC GROUP COMPOSITION, WESTERN EUROPE; MEASURES OF EMPHASIS, ATTENTION, AND CRITICAL TENDENCY

Top. group emphasis rank	Topic groups (capitalized) and topics	EMPHASIS				ATTENTION			
				Critical tendency				Critical tendency	
		N	%	Mean	(SD)	N	%	Mean	(SD)
1	TEACHING AND TEACHERS	75	22.6	-1	(8)	475	**	-2	(10)
	Teacher organizations, unions	22	6.6	-5	(5)	95	28.6	-1	(4)
	Prizes, awards to educators;other distinctions	15	4.5	+7	(5)	25	7.5	+6	(5)
	Teachers' salaries, economic status, welfare	13	3.9	-2	(5)	81	24.4	-1	(4)
	Teaching (and research) tasks,responsibilities	9	2.7	-3	(5)	118	35.5	0	(0)
	Faculty meetings, policies, action	9	2.7	0	(0)	61	18.4	0	(2)
	Teachers' relations with community	*				53	16.0	+4	(6)
	Teachers' relations with colleagues	*				53	16.0	+1	(4)
	Teachers' relations with students	*				50	15.1	+1	(4)
2	SCHOOL SYSTEM, ORGANIZATION, ADMINISTRATION	40	12.0	-1	(5)	365	**	0	(4)
	Educational reform, legislation	23	6.9	-1	(6)	102	30.7	-1	(5)
	Courses and curriculum	6	1.8	0	(0)	30	9.0	0	(0)
	Faculty, staff, personnel policies	5	1.5	-2	(4)	32	9.6	-2	(4)
	Administration, administrators	*				71	21.4	0	(4)
	Boards, trustees, elected officials	*				62	18.7	0	(2)
	Enrollments, openings for students	*				36	10.8	0	(2)
3	SPECIAL EVENTS, ACTIVITIES	29	8.7	+4	(5)	108	**	+2	(4)
	Political activities	14	4.2	+6	(5)	29	8.7	+3	(5)
	Celebrations, festivities	5	1.5	+4	(5)	26	7.8	+2	(4)
	Shows, performances, parades	4	1.2	+3	(5)	12	3.6	+3	(5)
	School opening	4	1.2	0	(0)	9	2.7	0	(0)
4	SCIENCE, SCIENTISTS, TECHNOLOGY	22	6.6	+2	(7)	118	**	+3	(6)
	Physical and natural science, scientists	20	6.0	+3	(0)	50	15.3	+3	(6)
5	SCHOOL FACILITIES, RESOURCES	19	5.7	0	(5)	174	**	0	(4)
	Eating facilities; school lunches	7	2.1	0	(0)	48	14.5	0	(3)
	Buildings, classrooms	5	1.5	0	(7)	31	9.3	-1	(6)
	Supply of teachers	4	1.2	-2	(5)	52	15.7	0	(3)
6	BUSINESS, INDUSTRY, LABOR, PRODUCTION	17	5.1	-1	(6)	151	**	-1	(4)
	Labor unions, activities	10	3.0	-4	(5)	70	21.1	-2	(4)
	Construction, building	4	1.2	+5	(6)	25	7.5	+1	(5)
7	POLITICS, GOVERNMENT	16	4.8	-1	(6)	253	**	0	(4)
	Legislation; government officials and agencies	6	1.8	-3	(4)	186	56.0	-1	(4)
8	OTHER COUNTRIES; NATIONAL MINORITIES	15	4.5	+2	(6)	148	**	0	(5)
	International exchange, contacts	10	3.0	+3	(5)	21	6.3	+4	(5)
	Education in allied or neutral countries	*				72	21.7	+1	(4)
	Education in countries not allied or neutral	*				36	10.8	-4	(5)

(Continued)

TABLE 4.1 (continued)

Top. group emphasis rank	Topic groups (capitalized) and topics	EMPHASIS N	%	Critical tendency Mean (SD)	ATTENTION N	%	Critical tendency Mean (SD)
9	ARTS AND HUMANITIES	13	3.9	+3 (5)	86	**	+1 (4)
	Literature, writers, books	7	2.1	+1 (4)	28	8.4	+1 (5)
10	STUDENT LIFE	11	3.3	0 (6)	75	**	0 (5)
	Student behavior, discipline	5	1.5	-2 (4)	19	5.7	-2 (5)
11.5	VITAL STATISTICS; PERSONAL, FAMILY TOPICS	9	2.7	0 (0)	64	**	0 (2)
	Obituaries, birth notices	5	1.5	0 (0)	6	1.8	0 (0)
	Parent-child relations involving school	*			42	12.6	0 (2)
11.5	LEARNING, STUDY, STUDENT PROGRESS	9	2.7	+2 (7)	48	**	+3 (5)
	Educational research, experimentation	4	1.2	+8 (5)	8	2.4	+8 (5)
13	VIOLENCE, ACCIDENTS, CATASTROPHIES	8	2.4	-1 (4)	13	**	-2 (3)
15	FINANCIAL ASPECTS OF SCHOOLS, EDUCATION	7	2.1	0 (6)	86	**	0 (4)
	Private gifts, grants	6	1.8	+2 (4)	12	3.6	+2 (4)
15	EDUCATIONAL MEDIA, METHODS	7	2.1	+4 (8)	69	**	+2 (5)
	Educational broadcasting	5	1.5	+2 (8)	9	2.7	+3 (7)
15	RELIGION AND THE SCHOOLS	7	2.1	+3 (5)	29	**	+1 (3)
18	AIMS, VALUES OF EDUCATION	5	1.5	+6 (5)	164	**	+4 (5)
	Service to community, nation, mankind	*			38	11.4	+6 (5)
18	SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS	5	1.5	+2 (5)	113	**	+2 (5)
	Role of school supporting society, social system	4	1.2	0 (0)	18	5.4	+2 (5)
	School-community organizations; PTA, etc.	*			67	20.2	+1 (4)
18	HEALTH, MEDICINE, PHYSICAL EDUCATION	5	1.5	+2 (4)	23	**	+2 (4)
20	ROYALTY, ARISTOCRACY	*			61	**	0 (0)
	King, queen, royalty	*			61	18.4	0 (0)

*Topic did not meet minimum criteria for tabulation of emphasis.

**Topic group attention percents are given only in tabulations dealing with individual countries. They were computed on the basis of the total number of references rather than on the basis of the total number of items used for computing all percentages in this Table.

TABLE 4.2

TOPICAL COMPOSITION, WESTERN EUROPE; MEASURES OF NEWS VALUE, EMPHASIS, AND ATTENTION

Topics	NEWS VALUE		EMPHASIS		ATTENTION	
	Rank	Index	Rank	%	Rank	%
Educational reform, legislation	1	234.3	1	6.9	3	30.7
Teacher organizations, unions	2	211.9	2	6.6	4	28.6
Physical and natural sciences, scientists	3	130.3	3	6.0	16.5	15.1
Teachers' salaries, economic status, welfare	4	111.2	6	3.9	5	24.4
Legislation; government officials and agencies	5	104.0	14	1.8	1	56.0
Teaching (and research) tasks, responsibilities	6	103.5	9.5	2.7	2	35.5
Prizes, awards to educators; other distinctions	7	93.8	4	4.5	29.5	7.5
Obituaries, birth notices	8	86.0	18.5	1.5	39	1.8
Political activities	9	84.8	5	4.2	26	8.7
Labor unions, activities	10	77.5	7.5	3.0	8	21.1
International exchange, contacts	11	66.5	7.5	3.0	31	6.3
Faculty meetings, policies, action	12	64.4	9.5	2.7	11.5	18.4
Educational broadcasting	13	59.6	18.5	1.5	36.5	2.7
Private gifts, grants	14	56.5	14	1.8	34.5	3.6
Educational research, experimentation	15	52.9	24.5	1.2	38	2.4
School opening	16	47.6	24.5	1.2	36.5	2.7
Eating facilities; school lunches	17	45.0	11.5	2.1	18	14.5
Literature, writers, books	18	42.6	11.5	2.1	27	8.4
Shows, performances, parades	19	37.6	24.5	1.2	34.5	3.6
Courses and curriculum	20	36.2	14	1.8	25	9.0
Student behavior, discipline	21	34.9	18.5	1.5	32	5.7
Celebrations, festivities	22	30.9	18.5	1.5	28	7.8
Buildings, classrooms	23	30.1	18.5	1.5	24	9.3
Faculty, staff, personnel policies	24	30.0	18.5	1.5	23	9.6
Role of school supporting society, social system	25	28.7	24.5	1.2	33	5.4
Supply of teachers	26	26.4	24.5	1.2	15	15.7
Construction, building	27	25.0	24.5	1.2	29.5	7.5
Education in allied or neutral countries	28	21.7	*		6	21.7
Administration, administrators	29	21.4	*		7	21.4
School-community organizations; PTA, etc.	30	20.2	*		9	20.2
Boards, trustees, elected officials	31	18.7	*		10	18.7
King, queen, royalty	32	18.4	*		11.5	18.4
Teachers' relations with colleagues	33.5	16.0	*		13.5	16.0
Teachers' relations with community	33.5	16.0	*		13.5	16.0
Teachers' relations with students	35	15.1	*		16.5	15.1
Parent-child relations involving school	36	12.6	*		19	12.6
Service to community, nation, mankind	37	11.4	*		20	11.4
Education in countries not allied or neutral	38.5	10.8	*		21.5	10.8
Enrollments, openings for students	38.5	10.8	*		21.5	10.8

*Topic did not meet minimum criteria for tabulation of emphasis measures.

TABLE 5.1

TOPIC GROUP COMPOSITION, GREAT BRITAIN; MEASURES OF EMPHASIS, ATTENTION, AND CRITICAL TENDENCY

Top. group emphasis rank	Topic groups (capitalized) and topics	EMPHASIS			ATTENTION		
		N	%	Critical tendency Mean (SD)	N	%	Critical tendency Mean (SD)
1	TEACHING AND TEACHERS	56	32.4	-3 (5)	360	**	-1 (11)
	Teacher organizations, unions	19	11.0	-5 (5)	75	43.4	-2 (5)
	Teachers' salaries, economic status, welfare	13	7.5	-2 (6)	77	44.5	-1 (3)
	Teaching (and research) tasks, responsibilities	9	5.2	-3 (5)	75	43.4	0 (2)
	Faculty meetings, policies, action	9	5.2	0 (0)	57	32.9	0 (19)
	Teachers' relations with students	*			38	22.0	+1 (3)
	Teachers' relations with colleagues	*			32	18.5	0 (3)
2	SCHOOL SYSTEM, ORGANIZATION, ADMINISTRATION	26	15.0	-2 (5)	232	**	-1 (4)
	Educational reform, legislation	17	9.8	-1 (5)	79	45.7	-2 (5)
	Faculty, staff, personnel policies	4	2.3	-2 (5)	18	10.4	-2 (4)
	Boards, trustees, elected officials	2	1.1	0 (0)	54	31.2	0 (2)
	Administration, administrators	*			44	25.4	-1 (3)
	Enrollments, openings for students	*			24	13.9	0 (0)
3	BUSINESS, INDUSTRY, LABOR, PRODUCTION	12	6.9	-3 (5)	106	**	-1 (3)
	Labor unions, activities	10	5.8	-4 (5)	69	39.9	-2 (4)
4	SCHOOL FACILITIES, RESOURCES	11	6.4	0 (0)	124	**	0 (3)
	Eating facilities; school lunches	7	4.0	0 (0)	47	27.2	0 (3)
	Supply of teachers	2	1.1	0 (0)	39	22.5	0 (2)
6	POLITICS, GOVERNMENT	9	5.2	-2 (4)	142	**	-1 (3)
	Legislation; government officials and agencies	5	2.9	-4 (5)	115	66.5	-8 (3)
6	SPECIAL EVENTS, ACTIVITIES	9	5.2	+2 (4)	49	**	+1 (3)
	Celebrations, festivities	2	1.1	+5 (7)	10	5.8	+1 (3)
	Political activities	2	1.1	+5 (7)	7	4.0	+1 (4)
	School opening	2	1.1	0 (0)	2	1.1	0 (0)
6	STUDENT LIFE	9	5.2	-2 (4)	42	**	-1 (1)
	Student behavior, discipline	5	2.9	-2 (4)	13	7.5	-2 (4)
	Student social life, activities	2	1.1	-5 (7)	8	4.6	-1 (3)
8	LEARNING, STUDY, STUDENT PROGRESS	7	4.0	0 (6)	27	**	0 (4)
	Academic discipline, punishment	3	1.7	0 (0)	8	4.6	0 (0)
	Educational research, experimentation	2	1.1	+5 (7)	2	1.1	+5 (7)
11	FINANCIAL ASPECTS OF SCHOOLS, EDUCATION	4	2.3	-2 (5)	51	**	-1 (3)
	Private gifts, grants	3	1.7	0 (0)	5	2.9	0 (0)
	Government support, grants	*			21	12.1	0 (0)

(Continued)

TABLE 5.1 (continued)

Top. group emphasis rank	Topic groups (capitalized) and topics	EMPHASIS			ATTENTION		
		N	%	Critical tendency Mean (SD)	N	%	Critical tendency Mean (SD)
11	VITAL STATISTICS; PERSONAL, FAMILY TOPICS	4	2.3	0 (0)	43	**	0 (0)
	Obituaries, birth notices	3	1.7	0 (0)	3	1.7	0 (0)
	Parent-child relations involving school	*			34	19.7	0 (0)
11	OTHER COUNTRIES; NATIONAL MINORITIES	4	2.3	+3 (5)	29	**	+1 (3)
	Education in allied or neutral countries	*			19	11.0	+1 (2)
11	SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS	4	2.3	+3 (5)	27	**	+2 (4)
	Role of school supporting society,social system	3	1.7	0 (0)	8	4.6	+1 (3)
11	VIOLENCE, ACCIDENTS, CATASTROPHIES	4	2.3	0 (0)	8	**	0 (0)
	Violence	2	1.1	0 (0)	3	1.7	0 (0)
	Accidents, catastrophies	2	1.1	0 (0)	2	1.1	0 (0)
14.5	EDUCATIONAL MEDIA, METHODS	2	1.1	0 (14)	12	**	0 (6)
	Educational broadcasting	2	1.1	0 (14)	2	1.1	0 (14)
14.5	HEALTH, MEDICINE, PHYSICAL EDUCATION	2	1.1	0 (0)	10	**	+1 (3)
16	ROYALTY, ARISTOCRACY	*			60	**	0 (0)
	King, queen, royalty	*			60	34.7	0 (0)

*Topic did not meet minimum criteria for tabulation of emphasis.

**Topic group attention percents are given in Table 5.3. They were computed on the basis of the total number of references rather than on the basis of the total number of items used for computing all percentages in this Table.

TABLE 5.2

TOPICAL COMPOSITION, GREAT BRITAIN; MEASURES OF NEWS VALUE, EMPHASIS, AND ATTENTION

Topics	NEWS VALUE Rank	NEWS VALUE Index	EMPHASIS Rank	EMPHASIS %	ATTENTION Rank	ATTENTION %
Teacher organizations, unions	1	502.7	1	11.0	1	31.9
Educational reform, legislation	2	469.3	2	9.8	3	45.7
Teachers' salaries, economic status, welfare	3	350.6	3	7.5	4	44.5
Labor unions, activities	4	245.9	4	5.8	6	39.9
Teaching (and research) tasks, responsibilities	5	237.7	5.5	5.2	5	43.4
Legislation; government officials and agencies	6	196.9	8.5	2.9	2	66.5
Faculty meetings, policies, action	7	186.9	5.5	5.2	8	32.9
Eating facilities; school lunches	8	123.5	7	4.0	10	27.2
Obituaries, birth notices	9	102.9	12.5	1.7	27.5	1.7
Educational research, experimentation	11.5	101.2	19.5	1.1	30.5	1.1
Accidents, catastrophies	11.5	101.2	19.5	1.1	30.5	1.1
Educational broadcasting	11.5	101.2	19.5	1.1	30.5	1.1
School opening	11.5	101.2	19.5	1.1	30.5	1.1
Violence	14	66.6	19.5	1.1	27.5	1.7
Private gifts, grants	15	63.5	12.5	1.7	26	2.9
Student behavior, discipline	16	60.5	8.5	2.9	20	7.5
Faculty, staff, personnel policies	17	46.0	10	2.3	19	10.4
Academic discipline, punishment	18	44.8	12.5	1.7	23	4.6
Role of school supporting society, social system	19	44.7	12.5	1.7	23	4.6
Boards, trustees, elected officials	20	37.8	19.5	1.1	9	31.2
King, queen, royalty	21	34.7	*		7	34.7
Political activities	22	31.9	19.5	1.1	25	4.0
Supply of teachers	23	29.7	19.5	1.1	12	22.5
Student social life, activities	24	29.0	19.5	1.1	23	4.6
Celebrations, festivities	25.5	25.4	19.5	1.1	21	5.8
Administration, administrators	25.5	25.4	*		11	25.4
Teachers' relations with students	27	22.0	*		13	22.0
Parent-child relations involving school	28	19.7	*		14	19.7
Teachers' relations with colleagues	29	18.5	*		15	18.5
Enrollments, openings for students	30	13.9	*		16	13.9
Government support, grants	31	12.1	*		17	12.1
Education in allied or neutral countries	32	11.0	*		18	11.0

*Topic did not meet minimum criteria for tabulation of emphasis measures.

TABLE 5.3

TOPIC GROUP STRUCTURE, GREAT BRITAIN; MEASURES OF ATTENTION AND CORRELATIONS

Att'n		ATTENTION		TWO HIGHEST CORRELATIONS WITH OTHER TOPIC GROUPS			
Rank	Topic groups	N	%	Rank Number[1]	r	Rank Number[1]	r
1	TEACHING AND TEACHERS	360	28.6	5	.30	4	.28
2	SCHOOL SYSTEM, ORGANIZATION, ADMINISTRATION	232	18.5	7	.36	4	.33
3	POLITICS, GOVERNMENT	142	11.3	6	.27	2	.25
4	SCHOOL FACILITIES, RESOURCES	124	9.9	2	.33	5	.32
5	BUSINESS, INDUSTRY, LABOR, PRODUCTION	106	8.4	4	.32	1	.30
6	ROYALTY, ARISTOCRACY	60	4.8	2	.31	3	.27
7	FINANCIAL ASPECTS OF SCHOOLS, EDUCATION	51	4.0	2	.36	4	.25
8	SPECIAL EVENTS, ACTIVITIES	49	3.9	10	.50	14	.32
9	VITAL STATISTICS; PERSONAL, FAMILY TOPICS	43	3.4	12.5b	.31	14	.29
10	STUDENT LIFE	42	3.3	12.5a	.56	1	.50
11	OTHER COUNTRIES; NATIONAL MINORITIES	29	2.3	10	.19	8	.18
12.5a	LEARNING, STUDY, STUDENT PROGRESS	27	2.1	10	.56	14	.42
12.5b	SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS	27	2.1	9	.31	14	.25
14	EDUCATIONAL MEDIA, METHODS	12	1.0	8	.32	9	.29
15	HEALTH, MEDICINE, PHYSICAL EDUCATION	10	.8	8	.31	16	.30
16	VIOLENCE, ACCIDENTS, CATASTROPHIES	8	.8	15	.30	1	.12

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[1] "Rank Number" refers to figure in the extreme left hand column and is given to identify topic groups correlated.

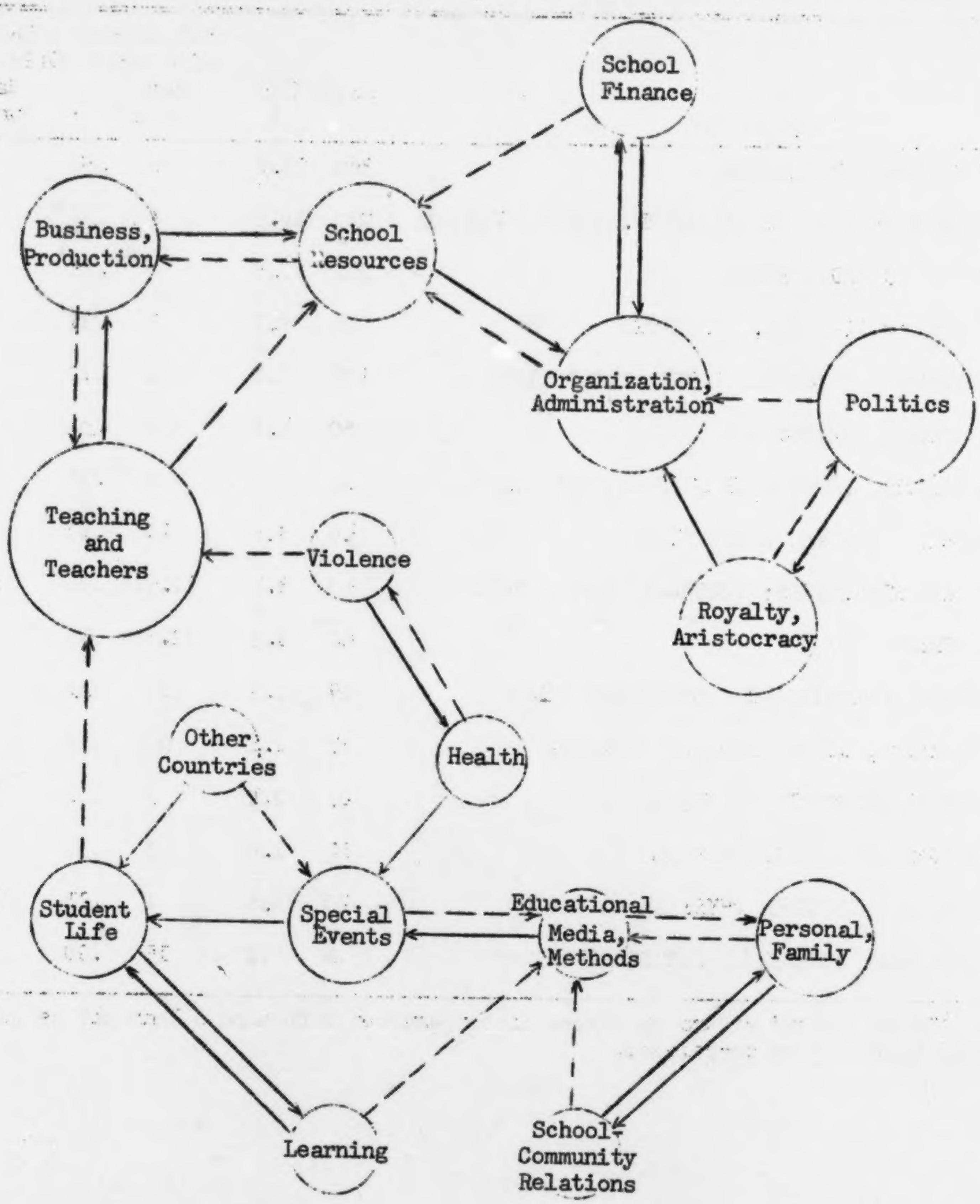
School Finance
Business, Production
School Resources
Organization, Administration
Politics
Teaching and Teachers
Violence
Royalty, Aristocracy
Other Countries
Health
Student Life
Special Events
Educational Media, Methods
Personal, Family
Learning
School-Community Relations

FIGURE 2

TOPIC GROUP STRUCTURE CORREGRAM, GREAT BRITAIN

TABLE 6.1

TOPIC GROUP COMPOSITION, WEST GERMANY; MEASURES OF EMPHASIS, ATTENTION, AND CRITICAL TENDENCY

Top. group emphasis rank	Topic groups (capitalized) and topics	EMPHASIS N	EMPHASIS %	EMPHASIS Critical tendency Mean (SD)	ATTENTION N	ATTENTION %	ATTENTION Critical tendency Mean (SD)
1	SCIENCE, SCIENTISTS, TECHNOLOGY	22	13.8	+2 (7)	100	**	+3 (6)
	Physical and natural science, scientists	20	12.6	+3 (7)	45	28.3	+3 (6)
	Technology, engineering	*			24	15.1	+1 (5)
	Scientific achievements, inventions	*			17	10.7	+5 (8)
2	SPECIAL EVENTS, ACTIVITIES	20	12.6	+4 (5)	59	**	+3 (5)
	Political activities	12	7.5	+6 (5)	22	13.8	+4 (6)
	Celebrations, festivities	3	1.9	+3 (6)	16	10.0	+3 (4)
	Shows, performances, parades	3	1.9	+3 (6)	11	6.9	+3 (5)
	School opening	2	1.2	0 (0)	7	4.4	0 (0)
3	TEACHING AND TEACHERS	19	11.9	+5 (5)	135	**	+2 (5)
	Prizes, awards to educators;other distinctions	14	8.8	+6 (5)	23	14.5	+6 (5)
	Teacher organizations, unions	3	1.9	0 (0)	20	12.6	+1 (2)
	Political activities of teachers	2	1.2	0 (0)	15	9.4	-1 (3)
	Teaching (and research) tasks,responsibilities	*			43	27.0	+2 (5)
	Teachers' relations with community	*			40	25.2	+4 (6)
	Teachers' relations with colleagues	*			21	13.2	+1 (6)
4	SCHOOL SYSTEM, ORGANIZATION, ADMINISTRATION	14	8.8	-1 (6)	133	**	0 (4)
	Educational reform, legislation	6	3.8	0 (9)	23	14.5	+1 (5)
	Courses and curriculum	5	3.1	0 (0)	20	12.6	+1 (2)
	Enrollments, openings for students	2	1.2	-5 (8)	12	7.5	0 (4)
	Administration, administrators	*			27	17.0	+2 (5)
5	ARTS AND HUMANITIES	12	7.5	+2 (5)	54	**	+2 (5)
	Literature, writers, books	7	4.4	+1 (4)	21	13.2	+2 (5)
	Drama	2	1.2	+5 (7)	5	3.1	+2 (4)
	Painting; graphic arts	2	1.2	+5 (7)	3	1.9	+3 (6)
6	OTHER COUNTRIES; NATIONAL MINORITIES	11	6.9	+2 (6)	119	**	0 (6)
	International exchange, contacts	9	5.7	+3 (5)	20	12.6	+4 (5)
	Education in allied or neutral countries	*			53	33.3	+1 (5)
	Education in countries not allied or neutral	*			33	20.8	-5 (5)
7	SCHOOL FACILITIES, RESOURCES	8	5.0	0 (8)	50	**	+1 (5)
	Buildings, classrooms	4	2.5	0 (8)	14	8.8	-1 (6)
	Supply of teachers	2	1.2	-5 (7)	13	8.2	-2 (4)
	Dormitory and other living facilities	2	1.2	+5 (7)	9	5.7	+2 (4)

(Continued)

TABLE 6.1 (continued)

Top. group emphasis rank	Topic groups (capitalized) and topics	EMPHASIS			ATTENTION		
		N	%	Critical tendency Mean (SD)	N	%	Critical tendency Mean (SD)
8	POLITICS, GOVERNMENT	7	4.4	+1 (7)	111	**	-1 (6)
	Disloyalty, subversion	3	1.9	+3 (6)	11	6.9	-1 (5)
	Study of international affairs	2	1.2	0 (14)	8	5.0	-1 (3)
	Legislation; government officials and agencies	*			71	44.6	-1 (5)
9	RELIGION AND THE SCHOOLS	6	3.8	+2 (4)	23	**	+1 (3)
	Religious occupations	2	1.2	+5 (7)	6	3.8	+2 (4)
	Religious institutions	2	1.2	0 (0)	6	3.8	0 (0)
11	EDUCATIONAL MEDIA, METHODS	5	3.1	+6 (5)	57	**	+2 (4)
	Educational broadcasting	3	1.9	+3 (6)	7	4.4	+4 (5)
11	BUSINESS, INDUSTRY, LABOR, PRODUCTION	5	3.1	+4 (5)	45	**	+1 (5)
	Construction, building	4	2.5	+5 (6)	15	9.4	+3 (5)
	Commercial, business education	*			18	11.3	-1 (2)
11	VITAL STATISTICS; PERSONAL, FAMILY TOPICS	5	3.1	0 (0)	21	**	+1 (3)
	Parent-child relations involving school	2	1.2	0 (0)	8	5.0	+1 (3)
	Obituaries, birth notices	2	1.2	0 (0)	3	1.9	0 (0)
13.5	AIMS, VALUES OF EDUCATION	4	2.5	+8 (5)	145	**	+5 (5)
	Ideals, values, morality	2	1.2	+5 (7)	16	10.1	+6 (5)
	Service to community, nation, mankind	*			34	21.4	+7 (5)
	Scientific discovery, exploration	*			27	17.0	+5 (5)
	Citizenship, participation	*			24	15.1	+5 (5)
	Transmission of historical, cultural heritage	*			16	10.0	+1 (3)
13.5	VIOLENCE, ACCIDENTS, CATASTROPHIES	4	2.5	0 (0)	8	**	0 (0)
	Accidents, catastrophies	3	1.9	0 (0)	5	3.1	0 (0)
15.5	FINANCIAL ASPECTS OF SCHOOLS, EDUCATION	3	1.9	+3 (6)	35	**	+2 (4)
	Private gifts, grants	3	1.9	+6 (6)	7	4.4	+3 (5)
15.5	HEALTH, MEDICINE, PHYSICAL EDUCATION	3	1.9	+3 (5)	13	**	+1 (5)
	Medical and nursing education	2	1.2	0 (0)	4	2.5	0 (0)
18	STUDENT LIFE	2	1.2	+10 (0)	33	**	+2 (6)
18	LEARNING, STUDY, STUDENT PROGRESS	2	1.2	+10 (0)	21	**	+5 (5)
	Educational research, experimentation	2	1.2	+10 (0)	7	4.4	+7 (5)
18	SPECIALIZED EDUCATIONAL AIMS AND FUNCTIONS	2	1.2	0 (0)	10	**	+1 (3)
20	SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS	*			86	**	+2 (5)
	School-community organizations; PTA, etc.	*			65	40.9	+1 (4)

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*Topic did not meet minimum criteria for tabulation of emphasis.

**Topic group attention percents are given in Table 6.3. They were computed on the basis of the total number of references rather than on the basis of the total number of items used for computing all percentages in this Table.

TABLE 6.2

TOPICAL COMPOSITION, WEST GERMANY; MEASURES OF NEWS VALUE, EMPHASIS, AND ATTENTION

Topics	NEWS VALUE		EMPHASIS		ATTENTION	
	Rank	Index	Rank	%	Rank	%
Physical and natural science, scientists	1	401.1	1	12.6	4	28.3
Prizes, awards to educators; other distinctions	2	188.3	2	8.8	13.5	14.5
Political activities	3	157.8	3	7.5	15	13.8
International exchange, contacts	4	117.0	4	5.7	19	12.6
Literature, writers, books	5	91.4	5	4.4	16.5	13.2
Dormitory and other living facilities	6	89.0	24	1.2	33	5.7
Educational reform, legislation	7	81.3	6	3.8	13.5	14.5
Accidents, catastrophies	8	67.2	13	1.9	42.5	3.1
Painting; graphic arts	9.5	65.4	24	1.2	45.5	1.9
Obituaries, birth notices	9.5	65.4	24	1.2	45.5	1.9
Courses and curriculum	11	63.7	7	3.1	19	12.6
Educational broadcasting	12.5	51.5	13	1.9	37.5	4.4
Private gifts, grants	12.5	51.5	13	1.9	37.5	4.4
Medicine and nursing education	14	51.0	24	1.2	44	2.5
Buildings, classrooms	15	50.4	8.5	2.5	28	8.8
Legislation; government officials and agencies	16	44.6	*		1	44.6
Drama	17	42.4	24	1.2	42.5	3.1
School-community organizations; PTA, etc.	18	40.9	*		2	40.9
Shows, performances, parades	19.5	40.6	13	1.9	31.5	6.9
Disloyalty, subversion	19.5	40.6	13	1.9	31.5	6.9
Teacher organizations, unions	21	39.0	13	1.9	19	12.6
Celebrations, festivities	22	38.0	13	1.9	24	10.1
Religious occupations	23.5	36.1	24	1.2	40.5	3.8
Religious institutions	23.5	36.1	24	1.2	40.5	3.8
Education in allied or neutral countries	25	33.3	*		3	33.3
Educational research, experimentation	26.5	32.5	24	1.2	37.5	4.4
School opening	26.5	32.5	24	1.2	37.5	4.4
Construction, building	28	30.1	8.5	2.5	26.5	9.4
Parent-child relations involving school	29.5	30.0	24	1.2	34.5	5.0
Study of international affairs	29.5	30.0	24	1.2	34.5	5.0
Teaching (and research) tasks, responsibilities	31	27.0	*		5	27.0
Teachers' relations with community	32	25.2	*		6	25.2
Enrollments, openings for students	33	25.0	24	1.2	30	7.5
Supply of teachers	34	24.4	24	1.2	29	8.2
Ideals, values, morality	35.5	24.0	24	1.2	24	10.1
Political activities of teachers	35.5	24.0	24	1.2	26.5	9.4
Service to community, nation, mankind	37	21.4	*		7	21.4
Education in countries not allied or neutral	38	20.8	*		8	20.8
Scientific discovery, exploration	39.5	17.0	*		9.5	17.0
Administration, administrators	39.5	17.0	*		9.5	17.0
Citizenship, participation	41.5	15.1	*		11.5	15.1
Technology, engineering	41.5	15.1	*		11.5	15.1
Teachers' relations with colleagues	43	13.2	*		16.5	13.2
Commercial, business education	44	11.3	*		21	11.3
Scientific achievements, inventions	45	10.7	*		22	10.7
Transmission of historical, cultural heritage	46	10.1	*		24	10.1

*Topic did not meet minimum criteria for tabulation of emphasis measures.

TABLE 6.3

TOPIC GROUP STRUCTURE, WEST GERMANY; MEASURES OF ATTENTION AND CORRELATIONS

Att'n Rank	Topic groups	ATTENTION N	ATTENTION %	TWO HIGHEST CORRELATIONS WITH OTHER TOPIC GROUPS Rank Number[1]	r	Rank Number[1]	r
1	AIMS, VALUES OF EDUCATION	145	13.3	16.5b	.45	6	.38
2	TEACHING AND TEACHERS	135	12.4	6	.42	1	.30
3	SCHOOL SYSTEM, ORGANIZATION, ADMINISTRATION	133	12.3	5	.37	16.5b	.28
4	OTHER COUNTRIES; NATIONAL MINORITIES	119	11.0	6	.30	1	.26
5	POLITICS, GOVERNMENT	111	10.2	3	.37	1	.37
6	SCIENCE, SCIENTISTS, TECHNOLOGY	100	9.2	2	.42	1	.38
7	SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS	86	7.9	5	.33	8	.32
8	SPECIAL EVENTS, ACTIVITIES	59	5.4	7	.32	5	.29
9	EDUCATIONAL MEDIA, METHODS	57	5.2	10	.32	11	.23
10	ARTS AND HUMANITIES	54	5.0	9	.32	1	.20
11	SCHOOL FACILITIES, RESOURCES	50	4.6	13	.32	12	.28
12	BUSINESS, INDUSTRY, LABOR, PRODUCTION	45	4.1	11	.28	13	.27
13	FINANCIAL ASPECTS OF SCHOOLS, EDUCATION	35	3.2	11	.32	12	.27
14	STUDENT LIFE	33	3.0	16.5a	.27	20	.25
15	RELIGION AND THE SCHOOLS	23	2.1	10	.13	4	.12
16.5a	VITAL STATISTICS; PERSONAL, FAMILY TOPICS	21	1.9	14	.27	16.5b	.25
16.5b	LEARNING, STUDY, STUDENT PROGRESS	21	1.9	1	.45	3	.28
18	HEALTH, MEDICINE, PHYSICAL EDUCATION	13	1.1	19	.30	16.5a	.19
19	SPECIALIZED EDUCATIONAL AIMS AND FUNCTIONS	10	.9	18	.30	3	.19
20	VIOLENCE, ACCIDENTS, CATASTROPHIES	8	.7	14	.25	16.5a	.20

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[1] "Rank Number" refers to figure in the extreme left hand column and is given to identify topic groups correlated.

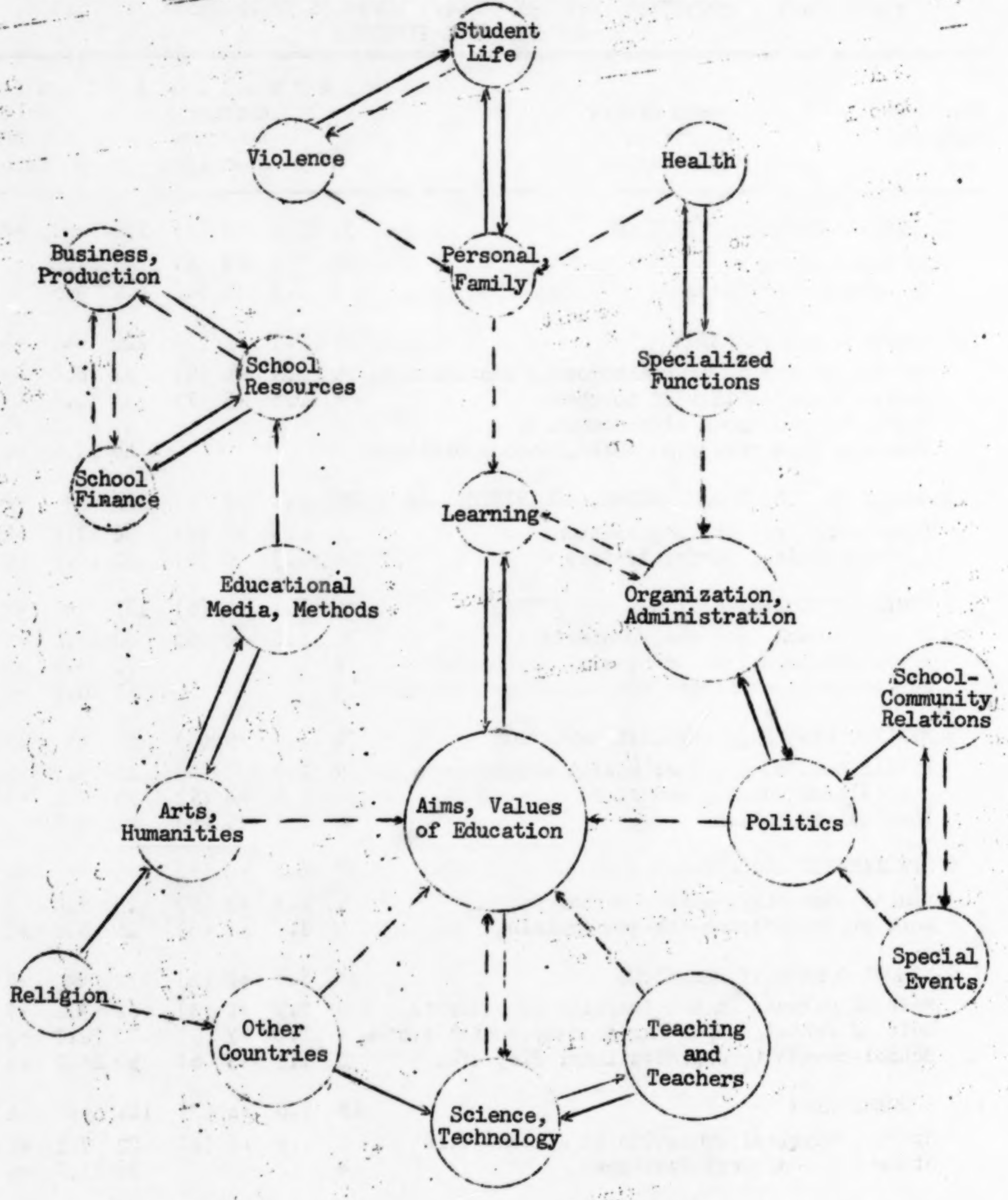
Student Life
Violence
Health
Business, Production
Personal, Family
School Resources
Specialized Functions
School Finance
Learning
Educational Media, Methods
Organization, Administration
School-Community Relations
Arts, Humanities
Aims, Values of Education
Politics
Religion
Other Countries
Teaching and Teachers
Special Events
Science, Technology

FIGURE 3

TOPIC GROUP STRUCTURE CORREGRAM, WEST GERMANY

TABLE 7.1

TOPIC GROUP COMPOSITION, EASTERN EUROPE; MEASURES OF EMPHASIS, ATTENTION, AND CRITICAL TENDENCY

Top. group emphasis rank	Topic groups (capitalized) and topics	EMPHASIS			ATTENTION		
		N	%	Critical tendency Mean (SD)	N	%	Critical tendency Mean (SD,
1	SPECIAL EVENTS, ACTIVITIES	32	10.4	+3 (4)	105	**	+2 (4)
	School opening	16	5.2	+2 (4)	55	17.8	+2 (4)
	Political activities	7	2.3	+1 (4)	14	4.5	+2 (4)
2.5	TEACHING AND TEACHERS	28	9.1	+5 (5)	224	**	+5 (5)
	Prizes, awards to educators;other distinctions	9	2.9	+5 (5)	21	6.8	+3 (5)
	Political activities of teachers	8	2.6	+5 (7)	33	10.7	+3 (6)
	Teachers' relations with community	*			47	15.2	+6 (5)
	Teaching (and research) tasks,responsibilities	*			48	15.5	+6 (5)
2.5	SCHOOL SYSTEM, ORGANIZATION, ADMINISTRATION	28	9.1	+3 (5)	195	**	+2 (4)
	Educational reform, legislation	14	4.5	+7 (5)	54	17.5	+4 (5)
	Administration, administrators	4	1.3	0 (0)	52	16.8	0 (3)
4	OTHER COUNTRIES; NATIONAL MINORITIES	25	8.1	+4 (6)	187	**	+2 (7)
	International exchange, contacts	21	6.8	+6 (5)	60	19.4	+5 (6)
	Education in allied or neutral countries	*			71	23.0	+5 (5)
	Education in countries not allied or neutral	*			51	16.5	-5 (5)
5	HEALTH, MEDICINE, PHYSICAL EDUCATION	24	7.8	+5 (5)	64	**	+5 (5)
	Public health, hygiene; health education	9	2.9	+7 (5)	16	5.2	+5 (5)
	Medical and nursing education	8	2.6	+4 (5)	23	7.4	+3 (5)
	Physical education	6	1.9	+5 (5)	21	6.8	+7 (5)
6	SPECIALIZED EDUCATIONAL AIMS AND FUNCTIONS	19	6.1	+4 (5)	115	**	+4 (5)
	Adult, community, extension courses	4	1.3	+3 (5)	23	7.4	+3 (5)
	Work experience; on-the-job training	4	1.3	+5 (6)	16	5.2	+3 (5)
7.5	SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS	18	5.8	+8 (4)	172	**	+7 (5)
	Role of parents in the learning of students	9	2.9	+9 (3)	22	7.1	+7 (5)
	Role of school supporting society,social system	4	1.3	+7 (5)	70	22.7	+9 (4)
	School-community organizations; PTA, etc.	4	1.3	+5 (6)	50	16.2	+4 (5)
7.5	STUDENT LIFE	18	5.8	+4 (7)	111	**	+4 (5)
	Sports, physical education in student life	6	1.9	+5 (0)	22	7.1	+5 (6)
	Student clubs, organizations	*			36	11.7	+5 (5)
9.5	SCHOOL FACILITIES, RESOURCES	17	5.5	+3 (6)	115	**	+2 (5)
	Buildings, classrooms	10	3.2	+2 (6)	40	12.9	+2 (5)

(Continued)

TABLE 7.1 (continued)

Top. group emphasis rank	Topic groups (capitalized) and topics	EMPHASIS N	%	Critical tendency Mean (SD)	ATTENTION N	%	Critical tendency Mean (SD)
9.5	ARTS AND HUMANITIES	17	5.5	+4 (5)	71	**	+3 (5)
	Music education, performances	5	1.6	+6 (5)	15	4.9	+2 (4)
	Drama	4	1.3	+3 (5)	9	2.9	+6 (5)
11	SCIENCE, SCIENTISTS, TECHNOLOGY	14	4.5	+6 (5)	151	**	+4 (5)
	Scientific achievements, inventions	5	1.6	+8 (4)	27	8.7	+7 (4)
	Physical and natural science, scientists	*			59	19.1	+3 (5)
	Technology, engineering	*			37	12.0	+4 (5)
12	FINANCIAL ASPECTS OF SCHOOLS, EDUCATION	13	4.2	+8 (4)	63	**	+5 (5)
	Scholarships, stipends	8	2.6	+7 (5)	26	8.4	+5 (5)
13	AIMS, VALUES OF EDUCATION	11	3.6	+9 (3)	274	**	+8 (4)
	Service to community, nation, mankind	5	1.6	+10 (0)	65	21.0	+9 (3)
	Ideals, values, morality	*			47	15.2	+9 (4)
	Hard work; excellence	*			40	12.9	+9 (3)
	Vocational goals; "close to work and life"	*			39	12.6	+8 (4)
14	POLITICS, GOVERNMENT	7	2.3	+9 (7)	175	**	+4 (6)
	Legislation; government officials and agencies	*			94	30.4	+2 (6)
	Support of government, patriotism	*			43	13.9	+8 (4)
15	LEARNING, STUDY, STUDENT PROGRESS	5	1.6	0 (7)	44	**	+2 (6)
16	AGRICULTURE, NATURE	4	1.3	+5 (6)	27	**	+4 (5)
	Agricultural education	4	1.3	+5 (6)	24	7.8	+4 (5)
17	BUSINESS, INDUSTRY, LABOR, PRODUCTION	*			88	**	+3 (5)
	Polytechnic education	*			47	15.2	+2 (5)

*Topic did not meet minimum criteria for tabulation of emphasis.

**Topic group attention percents are given only in tabulations dealing with individual countries. They were computed on the basis of the total number of references rather than on the basis of the total number of items used for computing all percentages in this Table.

TABLE 7.2

TOPICAL COMPOSITION, EASTERN EUROPE; MEASURES OF NEWS VALUE, EMPHASIS, AND ATTENTION

Topics	NEWS VALUE		EMPHASIS		ATTENTION	
	Rank	Index	Rank	%	Rank	%
International exchange, contacts	1	166.9	1	6.8	5	19.4
School opening	2	121.8	2	5.2	7	17.8
Educational reform, legislation	3	104.4	3	4.5	8	17.5
Public health, hygiene; health education	4	70.9	6	2.9	32.5	5.2
Buildings, classrooms	5	66.1	4	3.2	17.5	12.9
Prizes, awards to educators; other distinctions	6	62.3	6	2.9	30.5	6.8
Role of parents in the learning of students	7.5	61.4	6	2.9	28.5	7.1
Political activities	7.5	61.4	11	2.3	35	4.5
Medical and nursing education	9	54.5	9	2.6	26.5	7.4
Scholarships, stipends	10	52.7	9	2.6	24	8.4
Political activities of teachers	11	52.1	9	2.6	22	10.7
Drama	12	48.6	20	1.3	36	2.9
Service to community, nation, mankind	13	41.2	15	1.6	4	21.0
Physical education	14	40.8	12.5	1.9	30.5	6.8
Music education, performances	15	40.4	15	1.6	34	4.9
Sports, physical education in student life	16	40.3	12.5	1.9	28.5	7.1
Role of school supporting society, social system	17	32.9	20	1.3	3	22.7
Scientific achievements, inventions	18	32.3	15	1.6	23	8.7
Work experience; on-the-job training	19	31.8	20	1.3	32.5	5.2
Legislation; government officials and agencies	20	30.4	*		1	30.4
Administration, administrators	21	29.5	20	1.3	9	16.8
School-community organizations; PTA, etc.	22	29.1	20	1.3	11	16.2
Adult, community, extension courses	23	27.2	20	1.3	26.5	7.4
Agricultural education	24	26.8	20	1.3	25	7.8
Education in allied or neutral countries	25	23.0	*		2	23.0
Physical and natural science, scientists	26	19.1	*		6	19.1
Education in countries not allied or neutral	27	16.5	*		10	16.5
Teaching (and research) tasks, responsibilities	28	15.5	*		12	15.5
Teachers' relations with community	30	15.2	*		14	15.2
Polytechnic education	30	15.2	*		14	15.2
Ideals, values, morality	30	15.2	*		14	15.2
Support of government, patriotism	32	13.9	*		16	13.9
Hard work; excellence	33	12.9	*		17.5	12.9
Vocational goals; "close to work and life"	34	12.6	*		19	12.6
Technology, engineering	35	12.0	*		20	12.0
Student clubs, organizations	36	11.7	*		21	11.7

*Topic did not meet minimum criteria for tabulation of emphasis measures.

TABLE 8.1

TOPIC GROUP COMPOSITION, EAST GERMANY; MEASURES OF EMPHASIS, ATTENTION, AND CRITICAL TENDENCY

		EMPHASIS			ATTENTION		
Top. group emphasis rank	Topic groups (capitalized) and topics	N	%	Critical tendency Mean (SD)	N	%	Critical tendency Mean (SD)
1	HEALTH, MEDICINE, PHYSICAL EDUCATION	20	12.1	+6 (5)	53	**	+6 (5)
	Public health, hygiene; health education	7	4.2	+9 (4)	13	7.9	+5 (5)
	Physical education	6	3.6	+5 (5)	20	12.1	+7 (5)
	Medical and nursing education	6	3.6	+5 (5)	16	9.7	+5 (5)
2	SPECIAL EVENTS, ACTIVITIES	18	10.9	+4 (5)	47	**	+3 (5)
	Political activities	6	3.6	+2 (4)	12	7.3	+3 (5)
	School opening	6	3.6	+5 (5)	11	6.7	+5 (5)
	Celebrations, festivities	2	1.2	+10 (0)	7	4.2	+3 (5)
3.5	TEACHING AND TEACHERS	17	10.3	+4 (6)	152	**	+5 (5)
	Prizes, awards to educators; other distinctions	7	4.2	+4 (5)	19	11.5	+2 (4)
	Political activities of teachers	6	3.6	+3 (8)	27	16.4	+2 (6)
	Teacher organizations, unions	2	1.2	0 (0)	14	8.5	+1 (3)
	Teaching (and research) tasks, responsibilities	*			37	22.4	+7 (5)
	Teachers' relations with community	*			32	19.4	+7 (5)
	Teachers' relations with students	*			19	11.5	+7 (5)
	Ideal, values of teaching	*			17	10.3	+8 (5)
3.5	STUDENT LIFE	17	10.3	+5 (7)	84	**	+4 (6)
	Sports, physical education in student life	6	3.6	+5 (8)	19	11.5	+5 (6)
	Student clubs, organizations	3	1.8	+7 (6)	27	16.4	+6 (5)
	Study, examinations	2	1.2	+5 (7)	13	7.9	+3 (6)
	Student work, hardship, labor	2	1.2	+5 (7)	7	4.2	+3 (5)
	Student behavior, discipline	2	1.2	0 (14)	4	2.4	+3 (9)
5	OTHER COUNTRIES; NATIONAL MINORITIES	16	9.7	+6 (6)	153	**	+2 (7)
	International exchange, contacts	15	9.1	+7 (5)	47	28.5	+5 (5)
	Education in allied or neutral countries	*			59	35.8	+5 (5)
	Education in countries not allied or neutral	*			46	27.9	-6 (5)
6	SCIENCE, SCIENTISTS, TECHNOLOGY	12	7.3	+7 (4)	79	**	+5 (5)
	Scientific achievements, inventions	5	3.0	+8 (4)	19	11.5	+7 (5)
	Physical and natural science, scientists	3	1.8	+10 (0)	38	23.0	+4 (5)
	Social science	2	1.2	+5 (8)	5	3.0	+4 (5)
7	SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS	11	6.7	+10 (0)	112	**	+7 (5)
	Role of parents in the learning of students	8	4.8	+10 (0)	14	8.5	+9 (4)
	Role of school supporting society, social system	3	1.8	+10 (0)	58	35.1	+9 (4)
	School-community organizations; PTA, etc.	*			32	19.4	+3 (4)

(Continued)

TABLE 8.1 (continued)

Top. group emphasis rank	Topic groups (capitalized) and topics	EMPHASIS			ATTENTION		
		N	%	Critical tendency Mean (SD)	N	%	Critical tendency Mean (SD)
8	ARTS AND HUMANITIES	8	4.8	+8 (4)	35	**	+4 (5)
	Dancing, dancers	3	1.8	+10 (0)	5	3.0	+8 (4)
	Music education, performances	2	1.2	+10 (0)	8	4.8	+3 (5)
	Painting; graphic arts	2	1.2	0 (0)	2	1.2	0 (0)
9	SCHOOL SYSTEM, ORGANIZATION, ADMINISTRATION	7	4.2	+1 (4)	91	**	+2 (5)
	Administration, administrators	4	2.4	0 (0)	38	23.0	+1 (3)
	Faculty, staff, personnel policies	2	1.2	0 (0)	5	3.0	0 (0)
	Educational reform, legislation	*			21	12.7	+5 (5)
10.5	AIMS, VALUES OF EDUCATION	6	3.6	+10 (0)	184	**	+8 (4)
	Service to community, nation, mankind	4	2.4	+10 (0)	52	31.5	+9 (3)
	Ideals, values, morality	*			34	20.6	+9 (3)
	Hard work; excellence	*			34	20.6	+9 (3)
	Scientific discovery, exploration	*			23	13.9	+7 (4)
10.5	POLITICS, GOVERNMENT	6	3.6	+2 (8)	147	**	+4 (6)
	Courts, law, constitution	3	1.8	+7 (6)	4	2.4	+2 (9)
	Study of international affairs	2	1.2	-5 (7)	11	6.7	+1 (5)
	Legislation; government officials and agencies	*			80	48.5	+3 (6)
	Support of government, patriotism	*			41	24.8	+9 (3)
13	SPECIALIZED EDUCATIONAL AIMS AND FUNCTIONS	3	1.8	+3 (6)	32	**	+6 (5)
	Youth programs, scouts, pioneers	2	1.2	0 (0)	27	16.4	+5 (5)
13	MILITARY AFFAIRS	3	1.8	0 (10)	16	**	0 (9)
	Military training,armed forces,national defense	3	1.8	0 (10)	8	4.8	+6 (7)
13	CRIME	3	1.8	-7 (6)	8	**	-4 (5)
	Political crime	3	1.8	-7 (6)	7	4.2	-2 (5)
15.5	SCHOOL FACILITIES, RESOURCES	2	1.2	0 (0)	30	**	+4 (6)
	Buildings, classrooms	2	1.2	0 (14)	12	7.3	+3 (6)
15.5	AGRICULTURE, NATURE	2	1.2	+10 (0)	10	**	+5 (5)
	Agricultural education	2	1.2	+10 (0)	9	5.4	+5 (5)
17	BUSINESS, INDUSTRY, LABOR, PRODUCTION	*			33	**	+4 (5)
	Polytechnic education	*			17	10.3	+2 (6)
18	LEARNING, STUDY, STUDENT PROGRESS	*			21	**	+5 (5)
	Student self-government; role in learning	*			17	10.3	+6 (5)

*Topic did not meet minimum criteria for tabulation of emphasis.

**Topic group attention percents are given in Table 8.3. They were computed on the basis of the total number of references rather than on the basis of the total number of items used for computing all percentages in this Table.

TABLE 8.2

TOPICAL COMPOSITION, EAST GERMANY; MEASURES OF NEWS VALUE, EMPHASIS, AND ATTENTION

Topics	NEWS VALUE Rank	NEWS VALUE Index	EMPHASIS Rank	EMPHASIS %	ATTENTION Rank	ATTENTION %
International exchange, contacts	1	291.3	1	9.1	5	28.5
Painting; graphic arts	2	101.4	27	1.2	48	1.2
Role of parents in the learning of students	3	97.3	2	4.8	29.5	8.5
Public health, hygiene; health education	4	86.4	3.5	4.2	31.5	7.9
Prizes, awards to educators; other distinctions	5	84.4	3.5	4.2	22.5	11.5
Service to community, nation, mankind	6	83.2	12.5	2.4	4	31.5
Political activities of teachers	7	80.9	7.5	3.6	16	16.4
Courts, law, constitution	8	79.3	17	1.8	46.5	2.4
School opening	9	77.8	7.5	3.6	35.5	6.7
Political activities	10	75.6	7.5	3.6	33.5	7.3
Sports, physical education in student life	11	72.7	7.5	3.6	22.5	11.5
Medical and nursing education	12	72.0	7.5	3.6	28	9.7
Physical education	13	71.1	7.5	3.6	20	12.1
Role of school in supporting society, social system	14	68.3	17	1.8	3	35.1
Administration, administrators	15	65.6	12.5	2.4	8.5	23.0
Dancing, dancers	16	65.4	17	1.8	44	3.0
Scientific achievements, inventions	17	60.6	11	3.0	22.5	11.5
Student behavior, discipline	18	52.9	27	1.2	46.5	2.4
Political crime	19	50.4	17	1.8	41	4.2
Physical and natural science, scientists	20	49.2	17	1.8	8.5	23.0
Legislation; government officials and agencies	21	48.5	*		1	48.5
Military training, armed forces, national defense	22	46.1	17	1.8	38.5	4.8
Social science	23.5	43.6	27	1.2	44	3.0
Faculty, staff, personnel policies	23.5	43.6	27	1.2	44	3.0
Student clubs, organizations	25	40.5	17	1.8	16	16.4
Education in allied or neutral countries	26	35.8	*		2	35.8
Celebration, festivities	27.5	33.6	27	1.2	41	4.2
Student work, hardship, labor	27.5	33.6	27	1.2	41	4.2
Music education, performances	29	30.8	27	1.2	38.5	4.8
Agricultural education	30	28.7	27	1.2	37	5.4
Education in countries not allied or neutral	31	27.9	*		6	27.9
Youth programs, scouts, pioneers	32	27.0	27	1.2	16	16.4
Study of international affairs	33	25.9	27	1.2	35.5	6.7
Buildings, classrooms	34	25.2	27	1.2	33.5	7.3
Support of government, patriotism	35	24.8	*		7	24.8
Study, examinations	36	24.7	27	1.2	31.5	7.9
Teacher organizations, unions	37	24.3	27	1.2	29.5	8.5
Teaching (and research) tasks, responsibilities	38	22.4	*		10	22.4
Ideals, values, morality	39.5	20.6	*		11.5	20.6
Hard work; excellence	39.5	20.6	*		11.5	20.6
Teachers' relations with community	41.5	19.4	*		13.5	19.4
School-community organizations; PTA, etc.	41.5	19.4	*		13.5	19.4
Scientific discovery, exploration	43	13.9	*		18	13.9
Educational reform, legislation	44	12.7	*		19	12.7
Teachers' relations with students	45	11.5	*		22.5	11.5
Ideals, values of teaching	47	10.3	*		26	10.3
Polytechnic education	47	10.3	*		26	10.3
Student self-government; role in learning	47	10.3	*		26	10.3

*Topic did not meet minimum criteria for tabulation of emphasis measures.

TABLE 8.3

TOPIC GROUP STRUCTURE, EAST GERMANY; MEASURES OF ATTENTION AND CORRELATIONS

Att'n Rank	Topic groups	ATTENTION N	%	TWO HIGHEST CORRELATIONS WITH OTHER TOPIC GROUPS Rank Number[1]	r	Rank Number[1]	r
1	AIMS, VALUES OF EDUCATION	184	16.3	5	.45	13	.35
2	OTHER COUNTRIES; NATIONAL MINORITIES	153	13.5	4	.16	8	.11
3	TEACHING AND TEACHERS	152	13.5	8	.35	11	.27
4	POLITICS, GOVERNMENT	147	13.0	5	.32	1	.26
5	SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS	112	9.9	1	.45	4	.32
6	SCHOOL SYSTEM, ORGANIZATION, ADMINISTRATION	91	8.0	9	.46	3	.26
7	STUDENT LIFE	84	7.4	13	.44	15	.25
8	SCIENCE, SCIENTISTS, TECHNOLOGY	79	7.0	3	.35	1	.29
9	HEALTH, MEDICINE, PHYSICAL EDUCATION	53	4.7	6	.46		*
10	SPECIAL EVENTS, ACTIVITIES	47	4.1	7	.16	17	.15
11	ARTS AND HUMANITIES	35	3.1	3	.27	15	.14
12	BUSINESS, INDUSTRY, LABOR, PRODUCTION	33	2.9	8	.25	4	.22
13	SPECIALIZED EDUCATIONAL AIMS AND FUNCTIONS	32	2.8	7	.44	1	.35
14	SCHOOL FACILITIES, RESOURCES	30	2.7	6	.16	5	.14
15	LEARNING, STUDY, STUDENT PROGRESS	21	1.9	13	.34	1	.26
16	MILITARY AFFAIRS	16	1.4	15	.17	18	.16
17	AGRICULTURE, NATURE	10	.9	1	.24	10	.15
18	CRIME	8	.7	16	.16		*

[1] "Rank Number" refers to figure in the extreme left hand column and is given to identify topic groups correlated.

*Correlation coefficient (r) less than +.10.

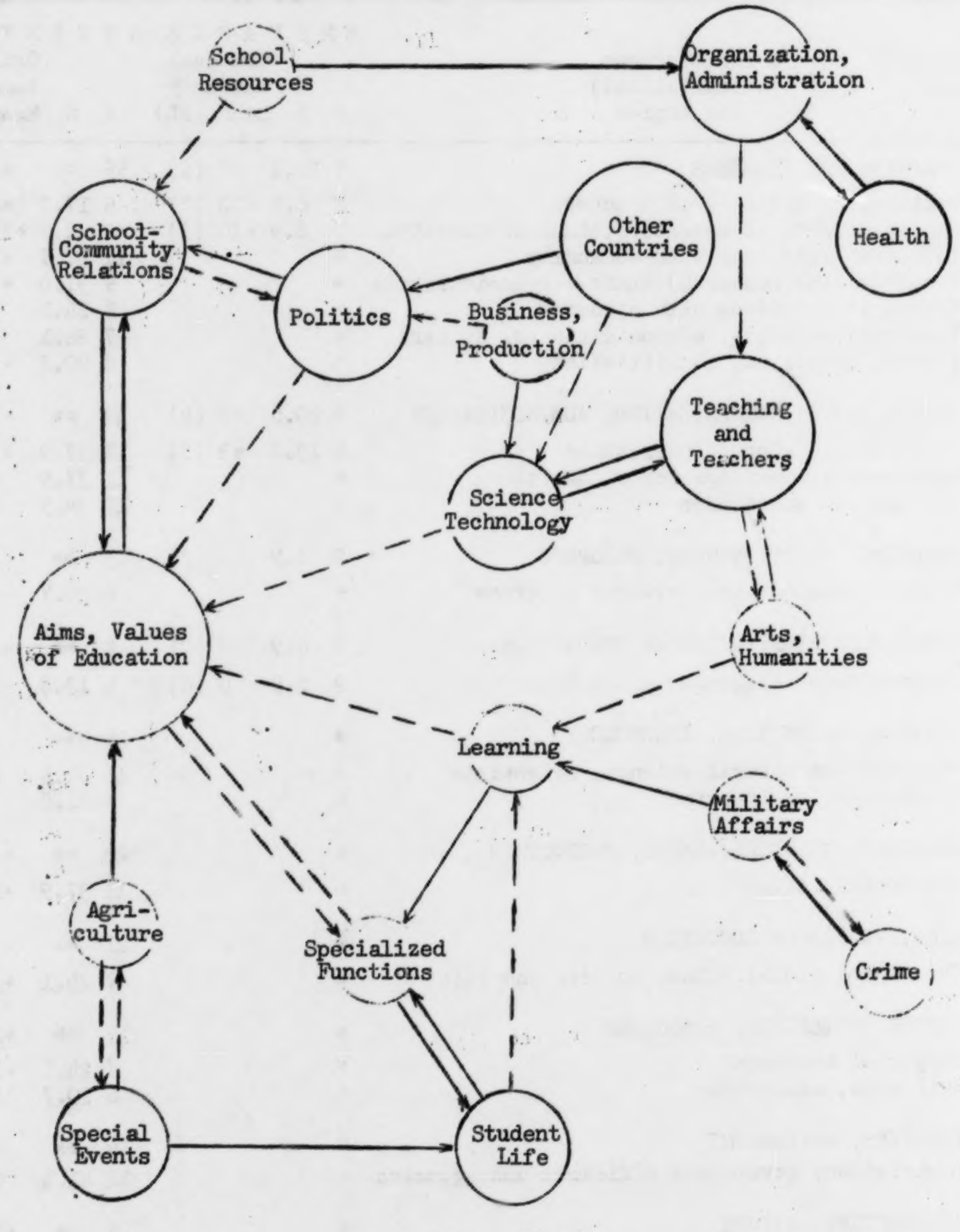
School Resources
Organization, Administration
Health
Other Countries
School-Community Relations
Politics
Business, Production
Teaching and Teachers
Science Technology
Aims, Values of Education
Arts, Humanities
Learning
Military Affairs
Agri-culture
Specialized Functions
Crime
Special Events
Student Life

FIGURE 4

TOPIC GROUP STRUCTURE CORREGRAM, EAST GERMANY

TABLE 9.1

TOPIC GROUP COMPOSITION, POLAND; MEASURES OF EMPHASIS, ATTENTION, AND CRITICAL TENDENCY

Top. group emphasis rank	Topic groups (capitalized) and topics	EMPHASIS			ATTENTION		
		N	%	Critical tendency Mean (SD)	N	%	Critical tendency Mean (SD)
1	TEACHING AND TEACHERS	7	24.1	+7 (5)	55	**	+4 (5)
	Political activities of teachers	2	6.9	+10 (0)	5	17.2	+8 (4)
	Prizes, awards to educators;other distinctions	2	6.9	+10 (0)	2	6.9	+10 (0)
	Teachers' relations with community	*			11	37.9	+5 (5)
	Teaching (and research) tasks,responsibilities	*			9	31.0	+2 (4)
	Teachers' relations with students	*			7	24.1	0 (0)
	Teachers' salaries, economic status, welfare	*			7	24.1	0 (0)
	Teacher education, qualification	*			6	20.7	+2 (4)
2	SCHOOL SYSTEM, ORGANIZATION, ADMINISTRATION	6	20.6	+2 (4)	42	**	+1 (3)
	Educational reform, legislation	4	13.8	+3 (5)	11	37.9	+1 (3)
	Enrollments, openings for students	*			11	37.9	0 (0)
	Courses and curriculum	*			10	34.5	0 (0)
3.5	LEARNING, STUDY, STUDENT PROGRESS	2	6.9	-5 (7)	13	**	-1 (3)
	Grades, examinations, student progress	*			6	20.7	-2 (4)
3.5	OTHER COUNTRIES; NATIONAL MINORITIES	2	6.9	0 (0)	8	**	+1 (4)
	International exchange, contacts	2	6.9	0 (0)	4	13.8	0 (0)
5	SCIENCE, SCIENTISTS, TECHNOLOGY	*			29	**	0 (2)
	Physical and natural science, scientists	*			10	34.5	0 (0)
	Technology, engineering	*			9	31.0	+1 (3)
6	BUSINESS, INDUSTRY, LABOR, PRODUCTION	*			23	**	+1 (3)
	Polytechnic education	*			11	37.9	+1 (3)
7	AIMS, VALUES OF EDUCATION	*			21	**	+3 (5)
	Vocational goals; "close to work and life"	*			7	24.1	+3 (5)
8.5	SCHOOL FACILITIES, RESOURCES	*			19	**	+1 (2)
	Supply of teachers	*			7	24.1	+1 (4)
	Buildings, classrooms	*			6	20.7	0 (0)
8.5	POLITICS, GOVERNMENT	*			19	**	0 (0)
	Legislation; government officials and agencies	*			12	41.4	0 (0)
10	AGRICULTURE, NATURE	*			9	**	+2 (4)
	Agricultural education	*			7	24.1	+3 (5)
11	SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS	*			8	**	+6 (5)
	Role of school supporting society,social system	*			7	24.1	+6 (5)

*Topic did not meet minimum criteria for tabulation of emphasis.

**Topic group attention percents are given in Table 9.3. They were computed on the basis of the total number of references rather than on the basis of the total number of items used for computing all percentages in this Table.

TABLE 9.2

TOPICAL COMPOSITION, POLAND; MEASURES OF NEWS VALUE, EMPHASIS, AND ATTENTION

Topics	NEWS VALUE Rank	NEWS VALUE Index	EMPHASIS Rank	EMPHASIS %	ATTENTION Rank	ATTENTION %
Educational reform, legislation	1	569.4	1	13.8	3.5	37.9
Political activities of teachers	2	158.8	3	6.9	19	17.2
Prizes, awards to educators; other distinctions	3	147.6	3	6.9	21	6.9
International exchange, contacts	4	143.1	3	6.9	20	13.8
Legislation; government officials and agencies	5	41.4	*		1	41.4
Enrollments, openings for students	7	37.9	*		3.5	37.9
Teachers' relations with community	7	37.9	*		3.5	37.9
Polytechnic education	7	37.9	*		3.5	37.9
Physical and natural science, scientists	9.5	34.5	*		6.5	34.5
Courses and curriculum	9.5	34.5	*		6.5	34.5
Technology, engineering	11.5	31.0	*		8.5	31.0
Teaching (and research) tasks, responsibilities	11.5	31.0	*		8.5	31.0
Vocational goals; "close to work and life"	15.5	24.1	*		12.5	24.1
Role of school supporting society, social system	15.5	24.1	*		12.5	24.1
Supply of teachers	15.5	24.1	*		12.5	24.1
Teachers' salaries, economic status, welfare	15.5	24.1	*		12.5	24.1
Teachers' relations with students	15.5	24.1	*		12.5	24.1
Agricultural education	15.5	24.1	*		12.5	24.1
Buildings, classrooms	20	20.7	*		17	20.7
Grades, examinations, student progress	20	20.7	*		17	20.7
Teacher education, qualification	20	20.7	*		17	20.7

*Topic did not meet minimum criteria for tabulation of emphasis measures.

TABLE 9.3

TOPIC GROUP STRUCTURE, POLAND; MEASURES OF ATTENTION AND CORRELATIONS

Att'n Rank	Topic groups	ATTENTION N	ATTENTION %	TWO HIGHEST CORRELATIONS WITH OTHER TOPIC GROUPS Rank Number[1]	r	Rank Number[1]	r
1	TEACHING AND TEACHERS	55	25.9	5	.55	6.5a	.47
2	SCHOOL SYSTEM, ORGANIZATION, ADMINISTRATION	42	19.8	10.5b	.35	8	.30
3	SCIENCE, SCIENTISTS, TECHNOLOGY	29	13.7	10.5b	.62	8	.50
4	BUSINESS, INDUSTRY, LABOR, PRODUCTION	23	10.8	10.5b	.51	3	.38
5	AIMS, VALUES OF EDUCATION	21	9.9	10.5b	.56	1	.55
6.5a	SCHOOL FACILITIES, RESOURCES	19	9.0	1	.47	10.5b	.43
6.5b	POLITICS, GOVERNMENT	19	9.0	5	.35	1	.34
8	LEARNING, STUDY, STUDENT PROGRESS	13	6.1	3	.50	2	.30
9	AGRICULTURE, NATURE	9	4.2	4	.36	1	.21
10.5a	OTHER COUNTRIES; NATIONAL MINORITIES	8	3.8	9	.18	3	.10
10.5b	SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS	8	3.8	3	.62	5	.56

[1] "Rank Number" refers to figure in the extreme left hand column and is given to identify topic groups correlated.

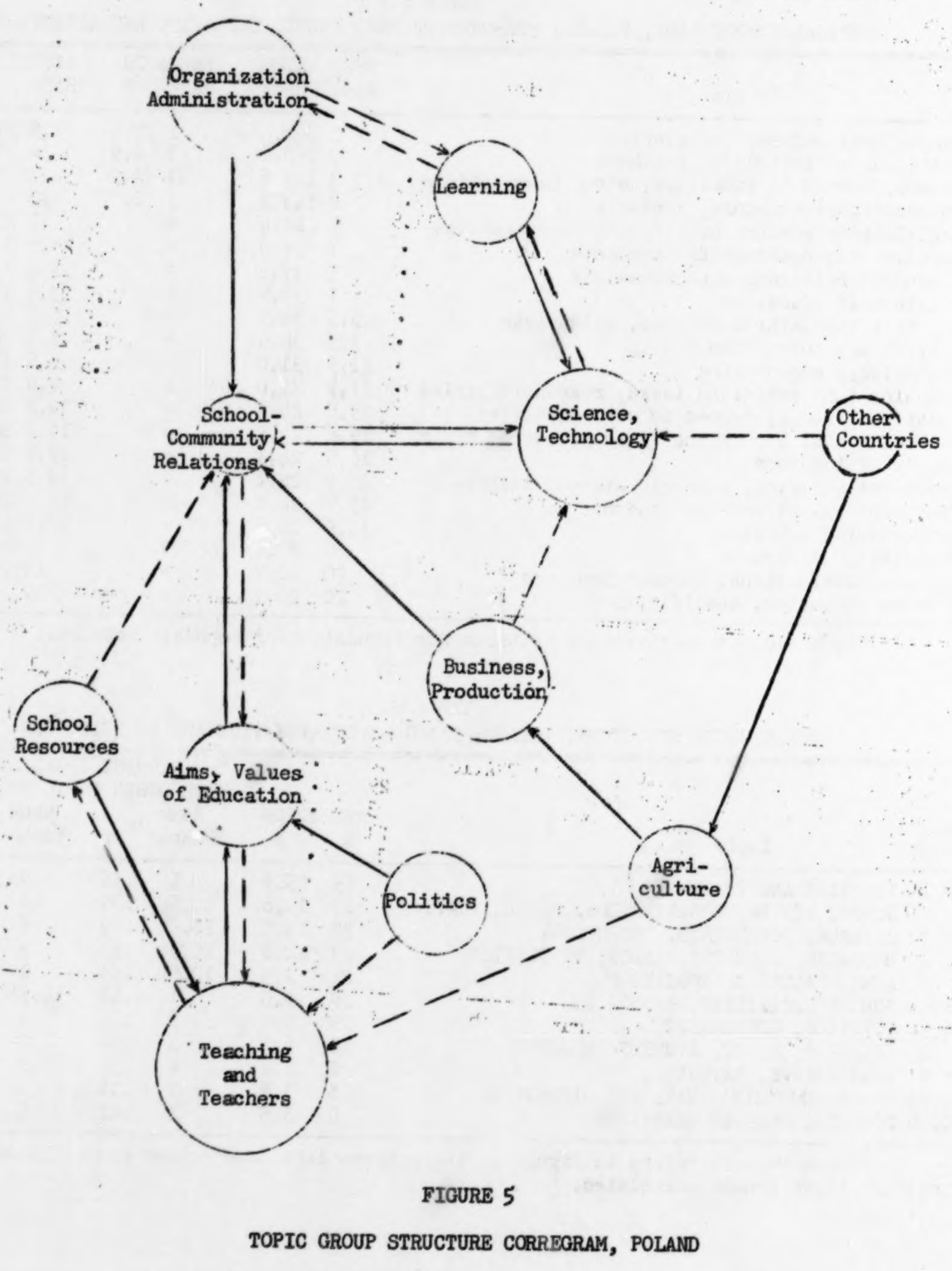
Organization Administration
Learning
School-Community Relations
Science, Technology
Other Countries
Business, Production
School Resources
Aims, Values of Education
Politics
Agri-culture
Teaching and Teachers

FIGURE 5

TOPIC GROUP STRUCTURE CORREGRAM, POLAND

TABLE 10.1

TOPIC GROUP COMPOSITION, CZECHOSLOVAKIA; MEASURES OF EMPHASIS, ATTENTION AND CRITICAL TENDENCY

Top. group emphasis rank	Topic groups (capitalized) and topics	EMPHASIS			ATTENTION		
		N	%	Critical tendency Mean (SD)	N	%	Critical tendency Mean (SD)
1	FINANCIAL ASPECTS OF SCHOOLS, EDUCATION	10	28.6	+10 (0)	42	**	+6 (5)
	Scholarships, stipends	6	17.2	+10 (0)	19	54.3	+7 (5)
	Government support, grants	3	8.6	+10 (0)	10	28.6	+5 (5)
	Stress on economy; care of property	*			9	25.7	+9 (3)
2	SCHOOL FACILITIES, RESOURCES	8	22.9	+6 (5)	42	**	+3 (4)
	Buildings, classrooms	5	14.3	+4 (5)	13	37.2	+3 (5)
	Equipment, supplies	*			11	31.5	+3 (5)
	Libraries, books	*			8	22.9	+2 (5)
3.5	AIMS, VALUES OF EDUCATION	3	8.6	+10 (0)	26	**	+8 (3)
3.5	SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS	3	8.6	+10 (0)	17	**	+6 (5)
	School-community organizations; PTA, etc.	2	5.7	+10 (0)	8	22.9	+4 (5)
6	SPECIAL EVENTS, ACTIVITIES	2	5.7	+5 (7)	31	**	+2 (7)
	School opening	*			22	62.9	+3 (5)
6	ARTS AND HUMANITIES	2	5.7	+5 (7)	16	**	+3 (4)
6	SCHOOL SYSTEM, ORGANIZATION, ADMINISTRATION	2	5.7	+5 (7)	15	**	0 (0)
	Educational reform, legislation	*			7	20.0	0 (0)
8	SCIENCE, SCIENTISTS, TECHNOLOGY	*			17	**	+4 (5)

*Topic did not meet minimum criteria for tabulation of emphasis.

**Topic group attention percents are given in Table 10.3. They were computed on the basis of the total number of references rather than on the basis of the total number of items used for computing all percentages in this Table.

TABLE 10.2

TOPICAL COMPOSITION, CZECHOSLOVAKIA; MEASURES OF NEWS VALUE, EMPHASIS, AND ATTENTION

Topics	NEWS VALUE Rank	NEWS VALUE Index	EMPHASIS Rank	EMPHASIS %	ATTENTION Rank	ATTENTION %
Scholarships, stipends	1	955.7	1	17.2	2	54.3
Buildings, classrooms	2	570.4	2	14.3	3	37.2
Government support, grants	3	276.1	3	8.6	5	28.6
School-community organizations; PTA, etc.	4	155.4	4	5.7	7	22.9
School opening	5	62.9	*		1	62.9
Equipment, supplies	6	31.5	*		4	31.5
Stress on economy; care of property	7	25.7	*		6	25.7
Libraries, books	8	22.9	*		8	22.9
Educational reform, legislation	9	20.0	*		9	20.0

*Topic did not meet minimum criteria for tabulation of emphasis measures.

TABLE 10.3

TOPIC GROUP STRUCTURE, CZECHOSLOVAKIA; MEASURES OF ATTENTION AND CORRELATIONS

Att'n Rank	Topic groups	ATTENTION N	ATTENTION %	TWO HIGHEST CORRELATIONS WITH OTHER TOPIC GROUPS Rank Number[1]	r	Rank Number[1]	r
1.5a	FINANCIAL ASPECTS OF SCHOOLS, EDUCATION	42	18.1	3	.35	1.5b	.10
1.5b	SCHOOL FACILITIES, RESOURCES	42	18.1	1.5a	.10		*
3	SPECIAL EVENTS, ACTIVITIES	31	13.3	1.5a	.35	8	.17
4	AIMS, VALUES OF EDUCATION	26	11.2	5.5a	.34	5.5b	.25
5.5a	SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS	17	7.3	4	.34		*
5.5b	SCIENCE, SCIENTISTS, TECHNOLOGY	17	7.3	4	.25	7	.19
7	SCHOOL SYSTEM, ORGANIZATION, ADMINISTRATION	15	6.4	4	.21	5.5b	.19
8	ARTS AND HUMANITIES	2	5.7	3	.17		*

[1] "Rank Number" refers to figure in the extreme left hand column and is given to identify topic groups correlated.

*Correlation coefficient (r) less than +.10.

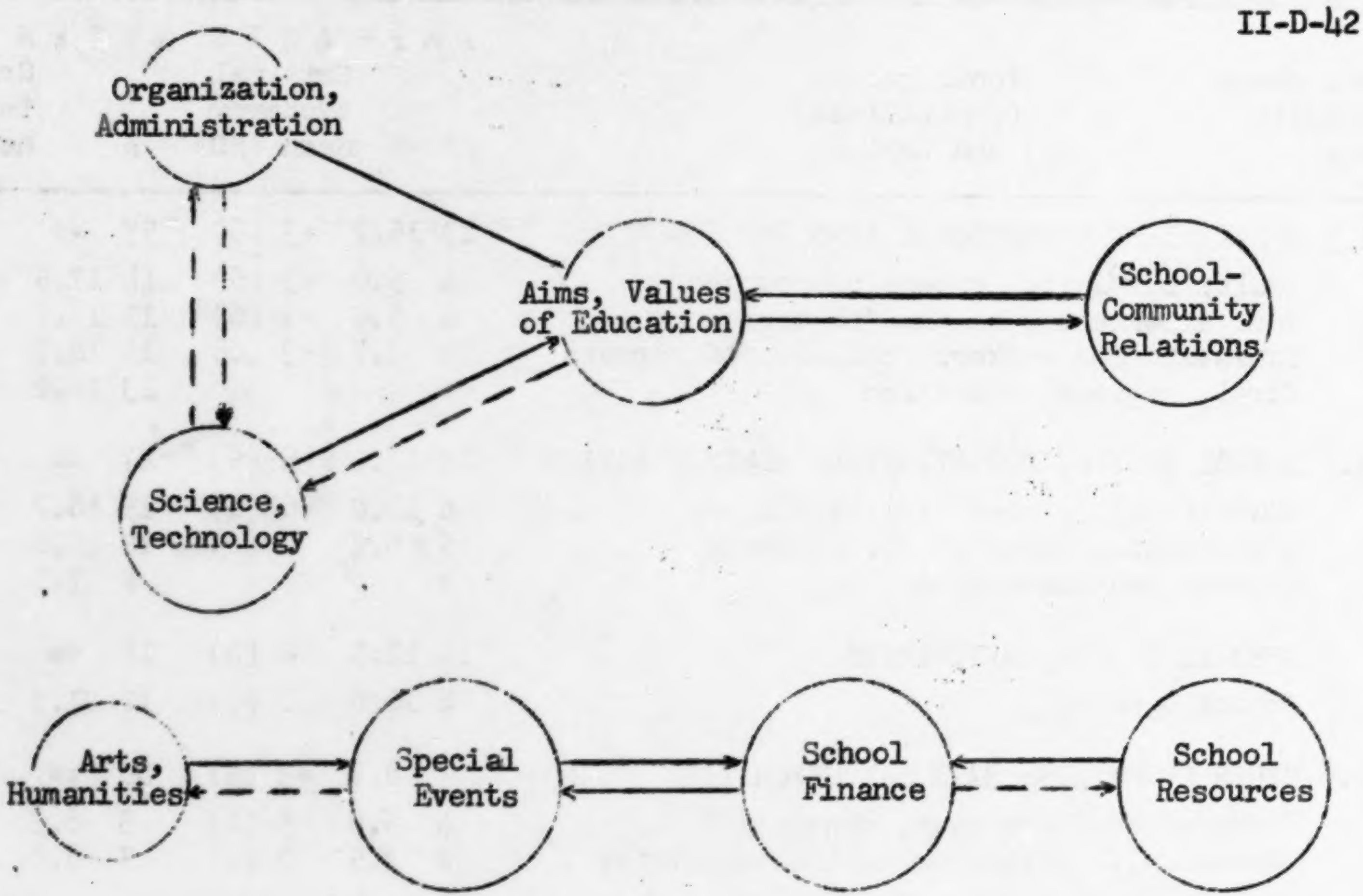
Organization, Administration
Aims, Values of Education
School-Community Relations
Science, Technology
Arts, Humanities
Special Events
School Finance
School Resources

FIGURE 6

TOPIC GROUP STRUCTURE CORREGRAM, CZECHOSLOVAKIA

TABLE 11.1

TOPIC GROUP COMPOSITION, HUNGARY; MEASURES OF EMPHASIS, ATTENTION, AND CRITICAL TENDENCY

Top. group emphasis rank	Topic groups (capitalized) and topics	EMPHASIS N	EMPHASIS %	EMPHASIS Critical tendency Mean (SD)	ATTENTION N	ATTENTION %	ATTENTION Critical tendency Mean (SD)
1.5	SPECIALIZED EDUCATIONAL AIMS AND FUNCTIONS	13	16.2	+3 (5)	55	**	+3 (5)
	Adult, community, extension courses	4	5.0	+3 (5)	14	17.5	+3 (5)
	Work experience; on-the-job training	4	5.0	+5 (6)	11	13.7	+3 (4)
	Education for workers, children of workers	3	3.7	+3 (6)	15	18.7	+5 (5)
	Rural, regional education	*			13	16.2	0 (0)
1.5	SCHOOL SYSTEM, ORGANIZATION, ADMINISTRATION	13	16.2	+5 (5)	47	**	+3 (5)
	Educational reform, legislation	8	10.0	+6 (4)	15	18.7	+7 (5)
	Enrollments, openings for students	5	6.2	0 (0)	12	15.0	-1 (3)
	Courses and curriculum	*			9	11.0	0 (0)
3	SPECIAL EVENTS, ACTIVITIES	10	12.5	0 (0)	18	**	0 (0)
	School opening	8	10.0	0 (0)	17	21.2	0 (0)
4.5	OTHER COUNTRIES; NATIONAL MINORITIES	7	8.7	+3 (5)	20	**	+2 (4)
	International exchange, contacts	4	5.0	+5 (6)	5	6.3	+4 (5)
	Education in allied or neutral countries	2	2.5	0 (0)	7	8.8	+3 (4)
4.5	ARTS AND HUMANITIES	7	8.7	0 (0)	12	**	+2 (4)
	Drama	3	3.7	0 (0)	3	3.7	0 (0)
	Music education, performances	2	2.5	0 (0)	2	2.5	+5 (7)
6	SCHOOL FACILITIES, RESOURCES	6	7.5	0 (0)	24	**	+2 (5)
	Buildings, classrooms	3	3.7	0 (0)	9	11.3	+2 (4)
7.5	TEACHING AND TEACHERS	4	5.0	+3 (5)	21	**	+3 (5)
	Teacher education, qualification	2	2.5	0 (0)	5	6.2	+2 (4)
	Teachers' relations with community	2	2.5	+5 (7)	4	5.0	+2 (5)
7.5	HEALTH, MEDICINE, PHYSICAL EDUCATION	4	5.0	0 (0)	7	**	+1 (4)
	Medical and nursing education	2	2.5	0 (0)	4	5.0	0 (0)
	Public health, hygiene; health education	2	2.5	0 (0)	3	3.7	+3 (6)
9	SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS	3	3.7	0 (0)	35	**	+6 (5)
	School-community organizations; PTA, etc.	2	2.5	0 (0)	10	12.5	+7 (5)
	Role of society supporting schools	*			15	18.7	+7 (5)
11	BUSINESS, INDUSTRY, LABOR, PRODUCTION	2	2.5	0 (0)	27	**	+4 (5)
	Polytechnic education	*			21	26.3	+3 (5)
11	SCIENCE, SCIENTISTS, TECHNOLOGY	2	2.5	0 (0)	26	**	+6 (5)
11	LEARNING, STUDY, STUDENT PROGRESS	2	2.5	+5 (7)	8	**	0 (8)
13	AIMS, VALUES OF EDUCATION	*			43	**	+7 (5)
	Vocational goals; "close to work and life"	*			18	22.5	+8 (4)
14	AGRICULTURE, NATURE	*			8	**	+4 (5)
	Agricultural education	*			8	10.0	+4 (5)

TABLE 11.2

TOPICAL COMPOSITION, HUNGARY; MEASURES OF NEWS VALUE, EMPHASIS, AND ATTENTION

Topics	NEWS VALUE		EMPHASIS		ATTENTION	
	Rank	Index	Rank	%	Rank	%
School opening	1	259.1	1.5	10.0	3	21.2
Educational reform, legislation	2	241.2	1.5	10.0	5	18.7
Enrollments, openings for students	3	135.0	3	6.2	9	15.0
Adult, community, extension courses	4	116.1	4.5	5.0	7	17.5
Work experience; on-the-job training	5	105.0	4.5	5.0	10	13.7
Drama	6	103.7	7	3.7	19.5	3.7
Music education; performances	7	102.5	12	2.5	21	2.5
Education for workers, children of workers	8	89.1	7	3.7	5	18.7
Public health, hygiene; health education	9	76.7	12	2.5	19.5	3.7
Buildings, classrooms	10	74.4	7	3.7	12.5	11.2
Teacher education, qualification	11	65.8	12	2.5	16	6.2
Teachers' relations with community	12.5	62.5	12	2.5	17.5	5.0
Medical and nursing education	12.5	62.5	12	2.5	17.5	5.0
School-community organizations; PTA, etc.	14	51.2	12	2.5	11	12.5
Education in allied or neutral countries	15	50.4	12	2.5	15	8.8
Polytechnic education	16	26.3	*		1	26.3
Vocational goals; "close to work and life"	17	22.5	*		2	22.5
Role of society supporting schools	18	18.7	*		5	18.7
Rural, regional education	19	16.2	*		8	16.2
Courses and curriculum	20	11.2	*		12.5	11.2
Agricultural education	21	10.0	*		14	10.0

*Topic did not meet minimum criteria for tabulation of emphasis measures.

TABLE 11.3

TOPIC GROUP STRUCTURE, HUNGARY; MEASURES OF ATTENTION AND CORRELATIONS

Att'n Rank	Topic groups	ATTENTION		TWO HIGHEST CORRELATIONS WITH OTHER TOPIC GROUPS			
		N	%	Rank Number[1]	r	Rank Number[1]	r
1	SPECIALIZED EDUCATIONAL AIMS AND FUNCTIONS	55	20.8	12.5b	.35	2	.29
2	SCHOOL SYSTEM, ORGANIZATION, ADMINISTRATION	47	17.8	5	.62	8	.61
3	AIMS, VALUES OF EDUCATION	43	16.2	2	.60	8	.57
4	SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS	35	13.2	3	.58	2	.51
5	BUSINESS, INDUSTRY, LABOR, PRODUCTION	27	10.2	2	.62	3	.55
6	SCIENCE, SCIENTISTS, TECHNOLOGY	26	9.8	8	.46	2	.44
7	SCHOOL FACILITIES, RESOURCES	24	9.1	10	.30	12.5a	.11
8	TEACHING AND TEACHERS	21	7.9	2	.61	6	.46
9	OTHER COUNTRIES; NATIONAL MINORITIES	20	7.5	8	.23		*
10	SPECIAL EVENTS, ACTIVITIES	18	6.8	7	.30	14	.26
11	ARTS AND HUMANITIES	12	4.5		*		*
12.5a	LEARNING, STUDY, STUDENT PROGRESS	8	3.0	8	.33	4	.26
12.5b	AGRICULTURE, NATURE	8	3.0	1	.35	3	.26
14	HEALTH, MEDICINE, PHYSICAL EDUCATION	7	2.6	10	.26	12.5a	.17

[1] "Rank Number" refers to figure in the extreme left hand column and is given to identify topic groups correlated.

*Correlation coefficient (r) less than +.10.

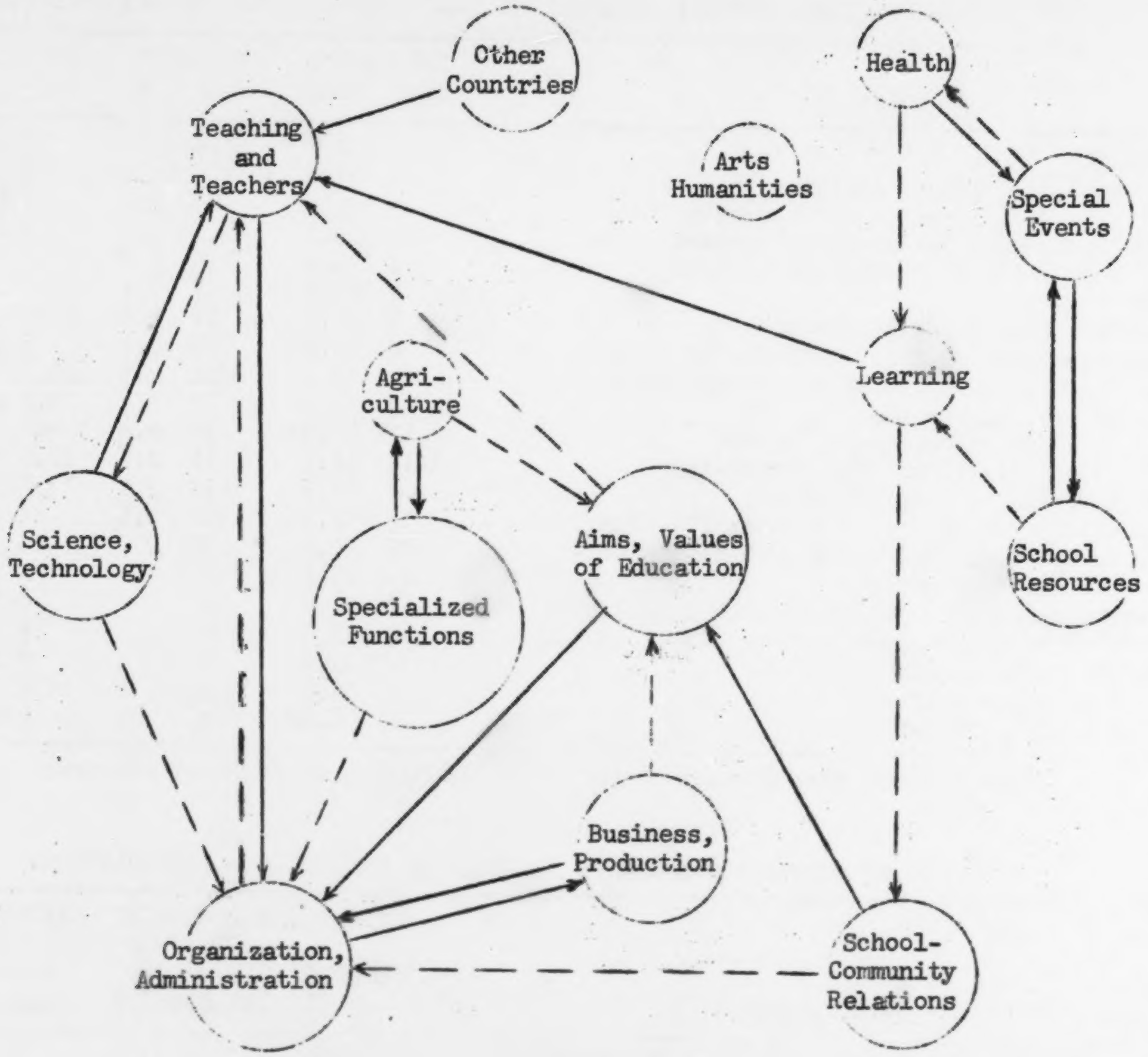
Other Countries
Health
Teaching and Teachers
Arts Humanities
Special Events
Agri-culture
Learning
Science, Technology
Specialized Functions
Aims, Values of Education
School Resources
Business, Production
Organization, Administration
School-Community Relations

FIGURE 7

TOPIC GROUP STRUCTURE CORREGRAM, HUNGARY

TABLE 12.1

TOPIC GROUP COMPOSITION, U.S.S.R.; MEASURES OF EMPHASIS, ATTENTION, AND CRITICAL TENDENCY

Top. group emphasis rank	Topic groups (capitalized) and topics	EMPHASIS			ATTENTION		
		N	%	Critical tendency Mean (SD)	N	%	Critical tendency Mean (SD)
1	LEARNING, STUDY, STUDENT PROGRESS	12	17.4	+3 (8)	109	**	+5 (6)
	Grades, examinations, student progress	12	17.4	+3 (8)	48	69.6	+6 (5)
	Amount of study	*			16	23.2	+1 (6)
	Educational research, experimentation	*			12	17.4	+8 (4)
	Academic discipline, punishment	*			11	15.9	+6 (5)
	Failures, dropouts	*			10	14.5	-3 (5)
	Scholarship competition	*			7	10.1	+1 (4)
3	AIMS, VALUES OF EDUCATION	10	14.5	+9 (3)	216	**	+9 (3)
	Transmission of historical, cultural heritage	5	7.2	+10 (0)	14	20.3	+10 (0)
	Scientific discovery, exploration	2	2.9	+10 (0)	10	14.5	+10 (0)
	Subject matter, "fundamentals"	*			44	63.8	+10 (0)
	Vocational goals; "close to work and life"	*			30	43.5	+9 (3)
	Hard work; excellence	*			27	39.1	+9 (7)
	Ideals, values, morality	*			23	33.3	+10 (0)
	Service to community, nation, mankind	*			16	23.2	+9 (3)
	Correct behavior, discipline	*			12	17.4	+8 (3)
	Citizenship, participation	*			11	15.9	+10 (0)
	Critical thinking; thinking for oneself	*			9	13.0	+9 (3)
	Helping others, good personal relationships	*			8	11.6	+10 (0)
3	TEACHING AND TEACHERS	10	14.5	+5 (5)	124	**	+4 (5)
	Teachers' relations with students	3	4.3	+10 (0)	28	40.6	+3 (5)
	Teachers' relations with community	3	4.3	+7 (6)	19	27.5	+5 (5)
	Teaching (and research) tasks, responsibilities	*			37	53.6	+4 (5)
	Teacher education, qualification	*			19	27.5	+5 (5)
3	SCHOOL FACILITIES, RESOURCES	10	14.5	+6 (5)	118	**	+4 (6)
	Buildings, classrooms	9	13.0	+6 (5)	25	36.2	+4 (5)
	Supply of teachers	*			37	53.6	+3 (5)
	Equipment, supplies	*			16	23.2	+6 (6)
	Libraries, books	*			13	18.8	+2 (6)
	Dormitory and other living facilities	*			11	15.9	+5 (5)
	Playgrounds, school grounds	*			9	13.0	+4 (5)
5	SCHOOL SYSTEM, ORGANIZATION, ADMINISTRATION	8	11.6	-7 (7)	118	**	+2 (7)
	Educational reform, legislation	5	7.2	-10 (0)	42	60.9	0 (8)
	Administration, administrators	2	2.9	-10 (0)	9	13.0	-2 (7)
	Courses and curriculum	*			27	39.1	+3 (5)
	Enrollments, openings for students	*			23	33.3	+3 (5)
	Boards, trustees, elected officials	*			7	10.1	-4 (8)

(Continued)

TABLE 12.1 (continued)

Top. group emphasis rank	Topic groups (capitalized) and topics	EMPHASIS N	EMPHASIS %	EMPHASIS Critical tendency Mean (SD)	ATTENTION N	ATTENTION %	ATTENTION Critical tendency Mean (SD)
6.5	STUDENT LIFE	6	8.7	+5 (8)	95	**	+5 (6)
	Student health and safety	2	2.9	+10 (0)	8	11.6	+9 (4)
	Study, examinations	*			30	43.5	+5 (6)
	Student work, hardship, labor	*			15	21.7	-1 (8)
	Sports, physical education in student life	*			11	15.9	+8 (4)
	Vacation time, playtime	*			9	13.0	+4 (5)
	Student clubs, organizations	*			8	11.6	+7 (5)
	Student behavior, discipline	*			7	10.1	+7 (5)
6.5	SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS	6	8.7	+10 (0)	54	**	+1 (3)
	Role of society supporting schools	5	7.2	+10 (0)	27	39.1	+9 (3)
	Role of school supporting society, social system	*			15	21.7	+9 (3)
	Role of parents in the learning of students	*			10	14.5	+8 (4)
9	SPECIALIZED EDUCATIONAL AIMS AND FUNCTIONS	2	2.9	+5 (7)	108	**	+7 (5)
	Work experience; on-the-job training	*			21	30.4	+6 (6)
	Adult, community, extension courses	*			19	27.5	+6 (5)
	Education for workers, children of workers	*			17	24.6	+8 (4)
	Rural, regional education	*			16	23.2	+8 (4)
	Day care centers, boarding schools, creches	*			14	20.3	+6 (5)
	Student counselling, guidance	*			9	13.0	+10 (0)
	Youth programs, scouts, pioneers	*			7	10.1	+6 (5)
9	ARTS AND HUMANITIES	2	2.9	+10 (0)	68	**	+7 (5)
	Language	2	2.9	+10 (0)	15	21.7	+4 (5)
	Literature, writers, books	*			16	23.2	+6 (5)
	Painting; graphic arts	*			8	11.6	+9 (3)
9	SPECIAL EVENTS, ACTIVITIES	2	2.9	+10 (0)	47	**	+4 (5)
	Vacation activities	2	2.9	+10 (0)	5	7.2	+6 (5)
	Graduation, commencement	*			15	21.7	+1 (3)
	Play activities	*			7	10.1	+8 (3)
	School opening	*			7	10.1	+1 (3)
11	BUSINESS, INDUSTRY, LABOR, PRODUCTION	*			93	**	+4 (7)
	Polytechnic education	*			31	44.9	+4 (7)
	Education and productivity	*			19	27.5	+7 (5)
	Labor unions, activities	*			10	14.5	+3 (7)
12	SCIENCE, SCIENTISTS, TECHNOLOGY	*			92	**	+5 (5)
	Technology, engineering	*			27	39.1	+4 (5)
	Physical and natural science, scientists	*			26	37.7	+4 (5)
	Mathematics	*			23	33.3	+5 (5)
	Social science	*			8	11.6	+4 (5)

(Continued)

TABLE 12.1 (continued)

Top. group emphasis rank	Topic groups (capitalized) and topics	EMPHASIS			ATTENTION		
		N	%	Critical tendency Mean (SD)	N	%	Critical tendency Mean (SD)
13	EDUCATIONAL MEDIA, METHODS	*			41	**	+6 (5)
	Reading, textbooks	*			14	20.3	+7 (5)
14	VITAL STATISTICS; PERSONAL, FAMILY TOPICS	*			37	**	0 (2)
	Parent-child relations involving school	*			21	30.4	+1 (3)
	Family life, education	*			15	21.7	0 (0)
15	POLITICS, GOVERNMENT	*			35	**	0 (8)
	Legislation; government officials and agencies	*			23	33.3	-3 (6)
16	FINANCIAL ASPECTS OF SCHOOLS, EDUCATION	*			33	**	0 (3)
	Cost of schools to community, state	*			14	20.3	0 (0)
	Government support, grants	*			8	11.6	0 (0)
17	AGRICULTURE, NATURE	*			21	**	+4 (6)
	Agricultural education	*			11	15.9	+5 (5)
	Study of nature; exploration, discovery	*			9	13.0	+3 (5)
18	HEALTH, MEDICINE, PHYSICAL EDUCATION	*			20	**	+2 (6)
	Medical and nursing education	*			9	13.0	-1 (6)
	Physical education	*			7	10.1	+6 (5)

*Topic did not meet minimum criteria for tabulation of emphasis.

**Topic group attention percents are given in Table 12.3. They were computed on the basis of the total number of references rather than on the basis of the total number of items used for computing all percentages in this Table.

TABLE 12.2

TOPICAL COMPOSITION, U.S.S.R.; MEASURES OF NEWS VALUE, EMPHASIS, AND ATTENTION

Topics	NEWS VALUE Rank	NEWS VALUE Index	EMPHASIS Rank	EMPHASIS %	ATTENTION Rank	ATTENTION %
Grades, examinations, student progress	1	1236.0	1	17.4	1	69.6
Buildings, classrooms	2	506.5	2	13.0	15	36.2
Educational reform, legislation	3	450.3	4	7.2	3	60.9
Role of society supporting schools	4	299.9	4	7.2	11.5	39.1
Teachers' relations with students	5	185.2	6.5	4.3	9	40.6
Transmission of historical, cultural heritage	6	181.7	4	7.2	38.5	20.3
Teachers' relations with community	7	133.9	6.5	4.3	23.5	27.5
Language	8	76.3	10	2.9	34	21.7
Subject matter, "fundamentals"	9	63.8	*		2	63.8
Scientific discovery, exploration	10	62.1	10	2.9	50.5	14.5
Vacation activities	11	61.2	10	2.9	73	7.2
Administration, administrators	12	60.0	10	2.9	56	13.0
Student health and safety	13	58.6	10	2.9	62.5	11.6
Teaching (and research) tasks, responsibilities	14.5	53.6	*		4.5	53.6
Supply of teachers	14.5	53.6	*		4.5	53.6
Polytechnic education	16	44.9	*		6	44.9
Vocational goals; "close to work and life"	17.5	43.5	*		7.5	43.5
Study, examinations	17.5	43.5	*		7.5	43.5
Courses and curriculum	20	39.1	*		11.5	39.1
Hard work; excellence	20	39.1	*		11.5	39.1
Technology, engineering	20	39.1	*		11.5	39.1
Physical and natural science, scientists	22	37.7	*		14	37.7
Mathematics	24.5	33.3	*		17.5	33.3
Ideals, values, morality	24.5	33.3	*		17.5	33.3
Legislation; government officials and agencies	24.5	33.3	*		17.5	33.3
Enrollments, openings for students	24.5	33.3	*		17.5	33.3
Work experience; on-the-job training	27.5	30.4	*		20.5	30.4
Parent-child relations involving school	27.5	30.4	*		20.5	30.4
Adult, community, extension courses	30	27.5	*		23.5	27.5
Teacher education, qualification	30	27.5	*		23.5	27.5
Education and productivity	30	27.5	*		23.5	27.5
Education for workers, children of workers	32	24.6	*		26	24.6
Service to community, nation, mankind	35	23.2	*		29	23.2
Equipment, supplies	35	23.2	*		29	23.2
Literature, writers, books	35	23.2	*		29	23.2
Amount of study	35	23.2	*		29	23.2
Rural, regional education	35	23.2	*		29	23.2
Graduation, commencement	39.5	21.7	*		34	21.7
Role of school supporting society, social system	39.5	21.7	*		34	21.7
Student work, hardship, labor	39.5	21.7	*		34	21.7
Family life, education	39.5	21.7	*		34	21.7
Reading, textbooks	43	20.3	*		38.5	20.3
Day care centers, boarding schools, creches	43	20.3	*		38.5	20.3
Cost of schools to community, state	43	20.3	*		38.5	20.3
Libraries, books	45	18.8	*		41	18.8
Educational research, experimentation	46.5	17.4	*		42.5	17.4
Correct behavior, discipline	46.5	17.4	*		42.5	17.4
Citizenship, participation	50	15.9	*		46	15.9
Agricultural education	50	15.9	*		46	15.9

(Continued)

TABLE 12.2 (continued)

Topics	NEWS VALUE Rank	NEWS VALUE Index	EMPHASIS Rank	EMPHASIS %	ATTENTION Rank	ATTENTION %
Dormitory and other living facilities	50	15.9	*		46	15.9
Academic discipline, punishment	50	15.9	*		46	15.9
Sports, physical education in student life	50	15.9	*		46	15.9
Failures, dropouts	54	14.5	*		50.5	14.5
Labor unions, activities	54	14.5	*		50.5	14.5
Role of parents in the learning of students	54	14.5	*		50.5	14.5
Playgrounds, school grounds	58.5	13.0	*		56	13.0
Student counselling, guidance	58.5	13.0	*		56	13.0
Critical thinking; thinking for oneself	58.5	13.0	*		56	13.0
Study of nature; exploration, discovery	58.5	13.0	*		56	13.0
Medical and nursing education	58.5	13.0	*		56	13.0
Vacation time, playtime	58.5	13.0	*		56	13.0
Helping others, good personal relationships	64	11.6	*		62.5	11.6
Government support, grants	64	11.6	*		62.5	11.6
Painting; graphic arts	64	11.6	*		62.5	11.6
Social science	64	11.6	*		62.5	11.6
Student clubs, organizations	64	11.6	*		62.5	11.6
Play activities	70	10.1	*		69	10.1
Scholarship competition	70	10.1	*		69	10.1
School opening	70	10.1	*		69	10.1
Physical education	70	10.1	*		69	10.1
Boards, trustees, elected officials	70	10.1	*		69	10.1
Youth programs, scouts, pioneers	70	10.1	*		69	10.1
Student behavior, discipline	70	10.1	*		69	10.1

*Topic did not meet minimum criteria for tabulation of emphasis measures.

TABLE 12.3

TOPIC GROUP STRUCTURE, U.S.S.R.; MEASURES OF ATTENTION AND CORRELATIONS

Att'n Rank	Topic groups	ATTENTION N	ATTENTION %	TWO HIGHEST CORRELATIONS WITH OTHER TOPIC GROUPS Rank Number[1]	r	Rank Number[1]	r
1	AIMS, VALUES OF EDUCATION	216	19.7	9	.50	5	.49
2	TEACHING AND TEACHERS	124	11.3	1	.43	9	.35
3.5a	SCHOOL FACILITIES, RESOURCES	118	10.8	3.5b	.45	16	.25
3.5b	SCHOOL SYSTEM, ORGANIZATION, ADMINISTRATION	118	10.8	3.5a	.45	16	.42
5	LEARNING, STUDY, STUDENT PROGRESS	109	9.9	1	.49	9	.39
6	SPECIALIZED EDUCATIONAL AIMS AND FUNCTIONS	108	9.8	8	.35	1	.23
7	STUDENT LIFE	95	8.6	12	.52	10	.21
8	BUSINESS, INDUSTRY, LABOR, PRODUCTION	93	8.5	6	.35	16	.32
9	SCIENCE, SCIENTISTS, TECHNOLOGY	92	8.4	1	.50	5	.39
10	ARTS AND HUMANITIES	68	6.2	13	.49	1	.27
11	SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS	54	4.9	15	.41	1	.32
12	SPECIAL EVENTS, ACTIVITIES	47	4.3	7	.52	17	.36
13	EDUCATIONAL MEDIA, METHODS	41	3.7	10	.49	1	.24
14	VITAL STATISTICS; PERSONAL, FAMILY TOPICS	37	3.4	11	.26	12	.25
15	POLITICS, GOVERNMENT	35	3.2	11	.41	1	.22
16	FINANCIAL ASPECTS OF SCHOOLS, EDUCATION	33	3.0	3.5b	.42	8	.32
17	AGRICULTURE, NATURE	21	1.9	12	.36	2	.21
18	HEALTH, MEDICINE, PHYSICAL EDUCATION	20	1.8	14	.24	12	.23

[1] "Rank Number" refers to figure in the extreme left hand column and is given to identify topic groups correlated.

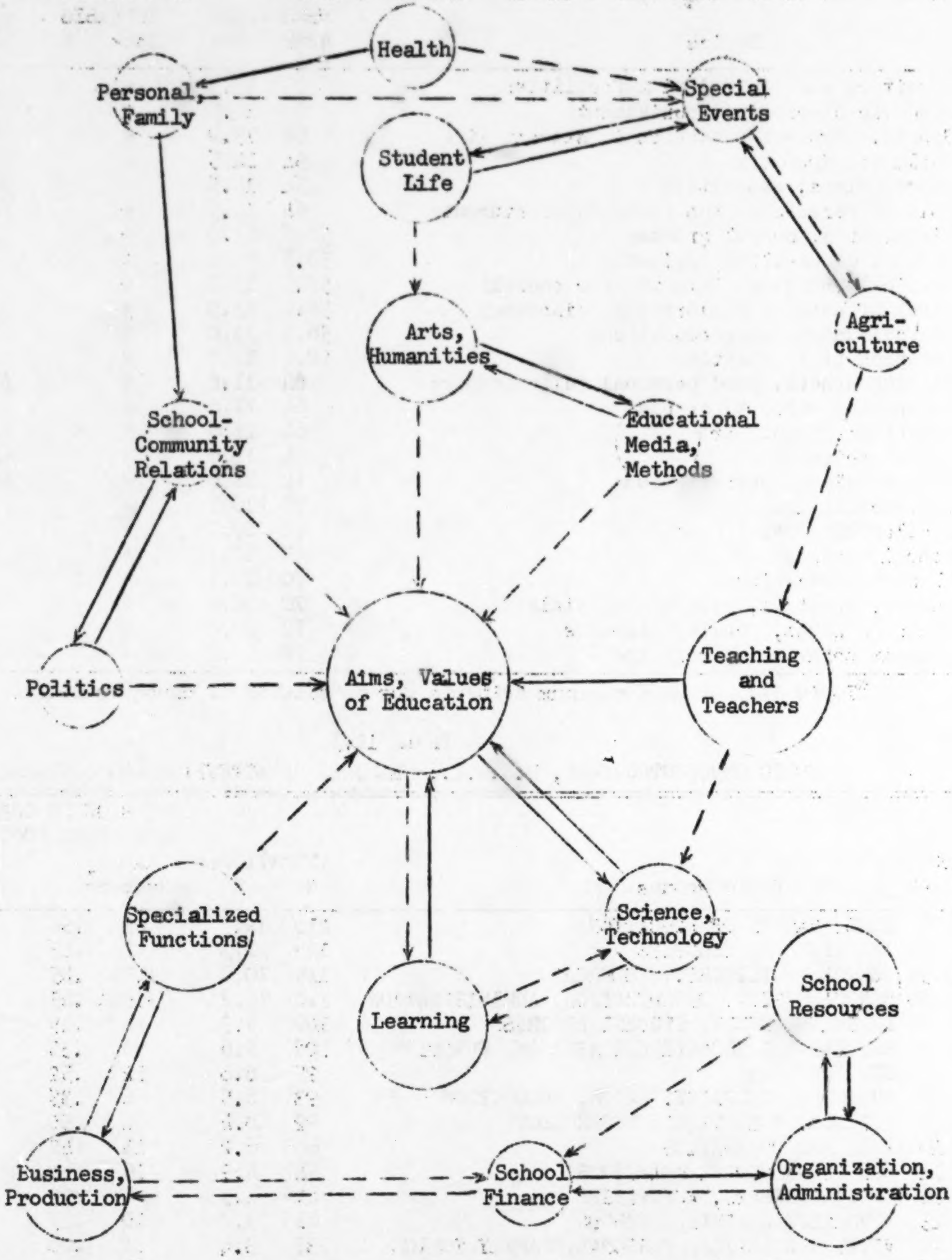
Health
Personal, Family
Special Events
Student Life
Agri-culture
Arts, Humanities
Educational Media, Methods
School-Community Relations
Politics
Aims, Values of Education
Teaching and Teachers
Specialized Functions
Science, Technology
Learning
School Resources
Business, Production
School Finance
Organization, Administration

FIGURE 8

TOPIC GROUP STRUCTURE CORREGRAM, U.S.S.R.

TABLE 13
COMPARISON OF TOPIC GROUP EMPHASIS RANKS; BY COUNTRY AND AREA[1]

Topic groups	US	WE	GB	WG	EE	EG	PO	CZ	HU	USSR
SCHOOL SYSTEM, ORGANIZATION, ADMINISTRATION	$\boxed{1}$	$\underline{2}$	$\underline{2}$	$\underline{4}$	$\underline{2.5}$	$\underline{9}$	$\underline{2}$	$\underline{6}$	$\underline{1.5}$	$\underline{5}$
SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS	$\boxed{2}$	18	11	20	$\underline{7.5}$	$\underline{7}$	11	$\underline{3.5}$	$\underline{9}$	$\underline{6.5}$
VITAL STATISTICS; PERSONAL, FAMILY TOPICS	$\boxed{3}$	11.5	11	11	--	--	--	--	--	14
FINANCIAL ASPECTS OF SCHOOLS, EDUCATION	$\underline{4}$	15	11	15.5	12	--	--	$\boxed{1}$	--	16
SPECIAL EVENTS, ACTIVITIES	$\underline{5}$	$\underline{3}$	$\underline{6}$	$\underline{2}$	$\boxed{1}$	$\underline{2}$	--	$\underline{6}$	$\underline{3}$	$\underline{9}$
SCHOOL FACILITIES, RESOURCES	$\underline{6}$	$\underline{5}$	$\underline{4}$	$\underline{7}$	$\underline{9.5}$	15.5	$\underline{8.5}$	$\boxed{2}$	$\underline{6}$	$\underline{3}$
TEACHING AND TEACHERS	$\underline{7}$	$\boxed{1}$	$\boxed{1}$	$\underline{3}$	$\underline{2.5}$	$\underline{3.5}$	$\boxed{1}$	--	$\underline{7.5}$	$\underline{3}$
SPECIALIZED EDUCATIONAL AIMS AND FUNCTIONS	$\underline{8}$	--	--	18	$\underline{6}$	13	--	--	$\boxed{1.5}$	$\underline{9}$
POLITICS, GOVERNMENT	$\underline{9}$	$\underline{7}$	$\boxed{6}$	$\underline{8}$	14	10.5	$\underline{8.5}$	--	--	15
LEARNING, STUDY, STUDENT PROGRESS	$\underline{10}$	11.5	$\underline{8}$	18	15	18	$\underline{3.5}$	--	11	$\boxed{1}$
OTHER COUNTRIES; NATIONAL MINORITIES	11	$\underline{8}$	11	$\underline{6}$	$\underline{4}$	$\underline{5}$	$\boxed{3.5}$	--	$\underline{4.5}$	--
STUDENT LIFE	12	$\underline{10}$	$\underline{6}$	18	$\underline{7.5}$	$\boxed{3.5}$	--	--	--	$\underline{6.5}$
HEALTH, MEDICINE, PHYSICAL EDUCATION	13	18	14.5	15.5	$\underline{5}$	$\boxed{1}$	--	--	$\underline{7.5}$	18
BUSINESS, INDUSTRY, LABOR, PRODUCTION	15.5	$\underline{6}$	$\boxed{3}$	11	17	17	$\underline{6}$	--	11	11
ARTS AND HUMANITIES	15.5	$\underline{9}$	--	$\underline{5}$	$\underline{9.5}$	$\underline{8}$	--	$\underline{6}$	$\boxed{4.5}$	$\underline{9}$
SCIENCE, SCIENTISTS, TECHNOLOGY	17.5	$\underline{4}$	--	$\boxed{1}$	11	$\underline{6}$	$\underline{5}$	$\underline{8}$	11	12
RELIGION AND THE SCHOOLS	19	15	--	$\boxed{9}$	--	--	--	--	--	--
AIMS, VALUES OF EDUCATION	20	18	--	13.5	13	10.5	$\underline{7}$	$\underline{3.5}$	13	$\boxed{3}$
AGRICULTURE, NATURE	--	--	--	--	16	15.5	$\boxed{10}$	--	14	17

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[1] Only topic groups ranked among the first 10 in any country or area are listed. Box (▱) marks highest rank; others among first ten in country or area are underlined (__); dash (--) indicates that topic group did not meet emphasis criteria.

ABBREVIATIONS: US - United States; WE - Western Europe; GB - Great Britain; WG - West Germany; EE - Eastern Europe; EG - East Germany; PO - Poland; CZ - Czechoslovakia; HU - Hungary; USSR - Soviet Union.

TABLE 14

COMPARISON OF TOPIC NEWS VALUE RANKS; BY COUNTRY AND AREA[1]

Topic groups	US	WE	GB	WG	EE	EG	PO	CZ	HU	USSR
Integration, segregation[2]	1	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
Enrollments	2	**	**	**	--	--	7	--	3	**
Obituaries, birth notices	3	8	9	9.5	--	--	--	--	--	--
School opening	4	**	**	**	2	9	--	5	1	**
Society notices; engagement, marriage	5	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
Government support, grants	6	--	**	--	--	--	--	3	--	**
Graduation, commencement	7	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	**
Buildings, classrooms	8	**	--	**	5	**	**	2	10	2
Private gifts, grants	9	**	**	**	--	--	--	--	--	--
Faculty, personnel	10	**	**	--	--	**	--	--	--	--
Scholarships, stipends	(12)	--	--	--	10	--	--	1	--	--
International contacts	(13)	**	--	4	1	1	4	--	--	--
Legislation; government	(15)	5	6	**	**	**	5	--	--	**
Courses and curriculum	(16)	**	--	**	--	--	9.5	--	**	**
Medical, nursing education	(17)	--	--	**	9	**	--	--	**	**
Teaching and research	(19)	6	5	**	**	**	**	--	--	**
Educational reform	(20)	1	2	7	3	**	1	9	2	3
Courts, constitution	(23)	--	--	--	--	8	--	--	--	--
Physical and natural science	(26)	3	--	1	**	**	9.5	--	--	**
Scientific discovery, exploration	--	--	--	**	--	**	--	--	--	10
Awards to educators	--	7	--	2	6	5	3	--	--	--
Accidents, catastrophies	--	--	**	8	--	--	--	--	--	--
Faculty policies	--	**	7	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
Eating facilities	--	**	8	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
Dormitories, living facilities	--	--	--	6	--	--	--	--	--	**
Teacher organizations	--	2	1	**	--	**	--	--	--	--
Labor unions	--	10	4	--	--	--	--	--	--	**

(Continued)

TABLE 14 (continued)

Topic groups	US	WE	GB	WG	EE	EG	PO	CZ	HU	USSR
Teachers' salaries, welfare	--	4	2	--	--	--	**	--	--	--
Literature, writers	--	**	--	5	--	--	--	--	--	**
Libraries, books	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	8	--	**
Painting; graphic arts	--	--	--	9.5	--	2	--	--	--	**
Drama	--	--	--	**	**	--	--	--	6	--
Music education, performances	--	--	--	--	**	**	--	--	7	--
Equipment, supplies	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	6	--	**
Care of property	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	7	--	--
Public health, health education	--	--	--	--	4	4	--	--	9	--
Political activities of schools	--	9	**	3	7.5	10	--	--	--	--
Political activities of teachers	--	--	--	**	**	7	2	--	--	--
Service to community, mankind	--	**	--	**	**	6	--	--	--	**
Teachers' relations with students	--	**	**	--	--	**	**	--	--	5
Teachers' relations with community	--	**	--	**	**	**	7	--	**	7
School-community organizations; PTA	--	**	--	**	**	**	--	4	**	--
Grades, examinations, student progress	--	--	--	--	--	--	**	--	--	1
Role of parents in learning of student	--	--	--	--	7.5	3	--	--	--	**
Polytechnic education	--	--	--	--	**	**	7	--	**	**
Work experience; on-the-job training	--	--	--	--	**	--	--	--	5	**
Adult, community, extension courses	--	--	--	--	**	--	--	--	4	**
Education for workers, their children	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	8	**
Role of society supporting schools	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	**	4
Transmission of historical heritage	--	--	--	**	--	--	--	--	--	6
Language	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	8
Subject matter, "fundamentals"	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	9

[1] Only topics ranked among the first 10 in any country or area are listed. Ranks are given only when among the first 10, except in the U.S. where ranks above ten are given in parentheses.

[2] Topic titles are slightly condensed. For full titles see tabulations under each country.

**Indicates topic ranked above 10.

--Indicates topic did not meet criteria for listing.

ABBREVIATIONS: US - United States; WE - Western Europe; GB - Great Britain; WG - West Germany; EE - Eastern Europe; EG - East Germany; PO - Poland; CZ - Czechoslovakia; HU - Hungary; USSR - Soviet Union.

Appendix II-E

PROPOSITION ANALYSIS: A CASE STUDY OF DIFFERENTIAL TENDENCIES IN MULTI-PARTY NEWS REPORTING IN THE FRENCH PRESS

This Appendix describes the methodology of an analysis of differential tendency (called proposition analysis), and presents the findings of a case study of ideological perspectives in multi-party news reporting in the French press. The case study focused on the reporting of a criminal case implicating a teacher, and on the differences in reporting the case in the political Left, Right, and commercial newspapers. The background of the study is presented along with the reproduction and tabulation of the differential accounts reconstructed through the method of proposition analysis. Findings of a separate study of space allocation to educational subjects in Paris dailies appear in Table 3.

Proposition analysis is designed to provide a measure of the specific content composition of differential tendencies in the presentation of the same events by different sources. It was developed for this study for the purpose of indicating differences in ideological perspective and political tendency in the reporting of a news event involving education.

The event was essentially a criminal act and the trial of the culprit. But the crime involved the probably unintended (although not entirely accidental) shooting of a student by a teacher. The fatal incident occurred in the provincial French town of Perpignan. No ideological or political motivation for the crime has been alleged. However, the ideological perspectives and consequent political tendencies underlying the necessarily selective presentation of any public event (especially education, and in France), and the existence of a clear differentiation of perspectives in the political and commercial organs of the French press, made this a fruitful case study in proposition analysis.

BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Before giving an account of the people, events, and the press involved in this study, and of the methods and findings of the analysis itself, it should be pointed out (although not elaborated here) that educational controversy has historic religious and political roots in France, and that the events reported took place at a time of a traumatic national crisis which marked the end of the Fourth Republic. Shortly before the shooting incident, teachers of France called a one-day strike throughout the country to demonstrate against the "legal coup d'état" which brought De Gaulle to power and to protest what they considered to be the threat of a right-wing dictatorship. Although this and similar circumstances played no direct role in the crime, they did affect some of the reporting.

The people and the events

Perpignan is a provincial town of over 70,000 in the foothills of the Pyrenees, at the southwestern edge of the wine-growing region along France's Mediterranean coast.

Jean Amiel, 37, teaches English at the Arago lycée of his home town of Perpignan. His wife is also an English teacher at a local girl's school. They have a four year old daughter and lead a busy but quiet private life in their new house in the suburbs.

Alain Rolland, 16, is a good student at the Arago lycée. He has never had Amiel for a teacher. He divides his time between the Boy Scouts, his studies, and his family. The Rollands are recent arrivals in Perpignan. Alain's father is director of a local branch of a bank, the Algerian Credit Society. Alain has a brother also at the Aragon lycée.

It is the night of St. Jean, June 23, 1958. Bonfires and dancing on the streets celebrate the longest day of the year in the tradition of Catalonian youth. A group of boys, including Alain, heads toward the suburbs to engage in a familiar prank: lighting firecrackers in the mailboxes of the quiet and dignified residential district.

This is the third night the same prank (although not the same pranksters) plague the Amiel house. Mme. Amiel does not feel well; the children cannot sleep. Jean Amiel has obtained a police permit for a gun to "scare off the vandals." Now he grabs the old revolver and fires three shots into the darkness from the second story window.

Alain falls to the ground. "He's hurt, he's bleeding," a friend cries out. Amiel drives the wounded boy to the police station, then to the hospital. The intern pronounces him dead on arrival. "Le coup du lapin," he says; a fatal blow to the spine, suffered in the fall.

Amiel drives the dead boy to his parents. He says he is responsible. But, despite their sorrow, the Rollands insist that only fate is responsible; a bad fall, "le coup du lapin." Amiel says nothing about the shots.

He arrives home pale, drawn, and still silent. His wife does not question him. Soon it's morning. Amiel calls his high school principal, says he will not meet his classes that day. He waits for the police. They arrive. The coroner has repudiated the intern's diagnosis. There is a small bullethole in the back of Alain's neck.

Public emotion runs high in Perpignan. A crowd of 3,000 gathers around the Amiel house. The police delay the usual reconstruction of events at the scene of the crime to avoid a riot. For a while it seems that the trial itself has to be moved to another city.

Nearly a year goes by before the case comes to trial. The proceedings are held in Perpignan without incident. There is no denial of guilt. The defense pleads merely an accident, "un cruel hasard." The jury's verdict: two years in prison, two and a half million (old) francs damages.

Two years later the Amiels are gone, their house is sold, the crime is forgotten. A colleague is asked about the case, and about its political repercussions, if any, for purposes of this study. He says Amiel was a "moderate leftist," his wife "more outspoken and militant." Amiel's promotion, long delayed at the time of the crime (as noted in the press coverage, especially of the Left) had been going through channels of the Ministry and was announced while he was in prison (as pointed up by the indignant press of the Right). The right wing provincial daily

Midi Libre has been feuding with the teaching corps. An ultra-conservative radio commentator on the national network has been attacking "criminal professors." Anonymous threatening letters have been sent to some teachers. But instruction at the lycée goes on as usual. The name of Jean Amiel is no longer mentioned in Perpignan.

The press

The French press is in the process of transformation from a "party press" to a commercially-sponsored press system. Although the two are not necessarily mutually exclusive, the "party press" differs from the commercial press in its standards of selection and editing. The party press in a multi-party system selects news and views according to criteria of relevance to its clients' radically different ideological perspectives. It creates and cultivates publics of varied and conflicting political potential. The commercial press in any political system selects material according to criteria of relevance to its need for mass appeal; it creates and cultivates publics to serve the purposes of its clients, the advertisers.

An estimate of the general extent of attention Paris daily papers devoted to news involving education at a later period can be gleaned from Table 3. (All Tables appear at the end of this Appendix.) During the month of January, 1961, Paris dailies devoted from 0.2 to 2.0 percent of total non-advertising space to teaching, schools, and educational problems in general. This included news and discussion of a fatal accident on a school playground. The commercial papers generally gave less space to education than did the more politically oriented and party press, and devoted more of that space to news of the accident. There appeared to be no consistent pattern in the amount of educational news featured on the front page.

Six Paris newspapers (marked C, R, and L in Table 3), and three provincial dailies were selected for the analysis of differential tendencies in reporting l'affair Amiel. The nine papers were chosen to represent three groups of newspapers in the French press: (1) the political Right, (2) the Left, and (3) the commercial press. The unique daily paper of great prestige, Le Monde and the influential Catholic press were not included in the analysis. (The titles of all papers will be included in the presentation of the results below. Circulation and readership figures, and measures of amount of space devoted to the Amiel case in each paper can be found in Table 1 at the end of this Appendix.)

METHOD OF ANALYSIS

Proposition analysis is essentially a process of abstracting and comparing assertions by different sources and constructing passages from assertions made by one source rather than (or in greater proportion than) others. The procedure consists of the following steps.

Message samples produced by the different sources are screened sentence by sentence to develop a list containing all basic propositions advanced by each source. The form of a proposition may differ from the form of the statement advancing it in that the proposition incorporates the basic idea of the statement in a more general propositional form. Identical propositions contained in differently worded statements are considered the same.

A master list of propositions includes all essentially different propositions advanced in all statements of each source. A code following each proposition records the source or sources which advanced it in one or more statements. (The number of times a proposition was advanced was not recorded in this study.) These propositions are sorted into "balanced" and "differential" categories, and further grouped into "balanced" and "differential" passages. The passages in which each source (or, in this case, press group) has about the same share of propositions are the "balanced" versions. Those in which some sources are represented more than others are the "differential" versions; they indicate the composition of differential tendencies in the message-production of the different sources.

The newspapers listed below (and on Table 2) were screened from June 25 through July 1, 1958, and from April 10 through April 23, 1959. The crime was reported during the first period, and the trial was held during the second.

The material analyzed included every news and feature story dealing with the crime, the trial, the major participants, and the public repercussions of the case. (There were no editorials.) Every newspaper used in the study carried at least seven relevant stories, and at least two in each period. Stories from both study periods were lumped together to compose the sample for each paper.

Information about the size and nature of the samples is given in Table 1. It should be noted here that the size of each sample affects primarily the total number of propositions advanced by a newspaper but not necessarily the number of different types of propositions. In other words, a paper may print a great deal of what is essentially common ground among all papers, or less but of a somewhat different slant.

Propositions were drawn from any and all kinds of statements in the relevant samples. They could be statements of the paper's own reporter, or they could be attributed to police, witnesses, lawyers, teachers -- anyone the paper chose to cite. A large variety of potential news sources make a wide variety of statements all the time; it is part of the editorial function of the press to select and compose from these some public representation of "the facts of the case" and of the views that shed light on the "facts." There is always a sufficient variety of types and sources of statements potentially available to any newspaper to fit more than one perspective.

A total of 642 separate propositions were listed as having been advanced in the statements of one or more of the newspapers studied. More than two-thirds of these propositions were "balanced" (advanced by papers of all three groups in about equal proportion), or were not strictly relevant to the events themselves, or both. (For example, there was much discussion about the general characteristics of modern youth in France and elsewhere.) About one-third of all propositions represented the differential aspects and versions. The passages were formed mainly from the latter, or from 201 propositions out of a total of 642.

These propositions were grouped into 11 passages. Each passage dealt with a certain aspect or version of the events. The grouping of the propositions was done without reference to the stories themselves. The sequence of propositions does not necessarily represent any actual sequence of statements in the stories.

The passages represent sets of propositions abstracted from the total coverage. The focus and complexion of the account changes from passage to passage as the balance of representation shifts from one side of the political spectrum to the other.

THE FINDINGS

We shall now present each passage, and the measures indicating each newspaper's (and press group's) share of representation in the propositions of each passage. As the passages do not reconstruct any sequence of events or reports in a chronological order, they can be ordered at will. We shall first attempt to reconstruct the "dialogue of ideological perspectives" inherent in the press coverage of events in a multi-party system. Later we shall discuss the passages in the order of shifting ideological perspective from Left to Right.

The passages and measures are presented as follows. A title and brief comment highlighting certain characteristics of each passage is followed by the propositions themselves (in somewhat abbreviated form to enhance readability and save space) on the left hand side of the page. The propositions are divided by brackets; the total number of propositions contained in each passage is given in parentheses at the end of the passage.

The measures appear on the right hand side of the page and to the right of each passage. The first column of figures gives the number of different propositions each newspaper advanced out of the total number of propositions included in the passage. The second column is the percentage share of each paper (and each press group) in the total number of different propositions included in the passage and advanced by all papers.

The press group which has the largest share of representation in the passage is boxed like this: /Left press/, etc. The two highest ranking individual newspapers are underlined. The reader can see at a glance which press group and which individual papers advanced the largest number of propositions in each passage.

Good man, terrible accident

The first passage is a relatively balanced version, recounting the story of a terrible accident that kills an innocent boy and ruins the life of a good man. The Left press leads in the number of propositions, but the differences are not very great and the individual papers rank in almost random order.

Propositions

A good man / stable / intelligent / hard working / generally pleasant and friendly / opposite of a madman or murderer / with a serene life / beyond reproach / past without blemish / able educator / devoted husband / blessed with daughters he loves / a good sense of humor / fires into the air without thinking / intending to scare the pranksters / overwhelmed when sees a boy fall / seized by panic / consumed by remorse / lives a horrible calvary / will never get over it / cannot believe what happened / beyond himself / loses the will to live / calm at the trial / restrained, soft-spoken / weary / tearful / refuses to acknowledge any extenuating circumstances / almost indifferent to the fate that has befallen him (Total:29)

Propositions made by:	N	%
/Left press/		(37.6)
Humanité	22	16.5
Libération	17	12.8
Provençal	11	8.3
Commercial press		(31.5)
France Soir	18	13.5
Par. Libéré	14	10.5
Indépendant	10	7.5
Right press		(30.8)
Aurore	13	9.8
Figaro	14	10.5
Midi Libre	14	10.5
Total	133	100.0

Happy childhood, easy life

The second passage delves into Jean Amiel's past. Its propositions paint a picture of happy childhood and easy life. The Right press is followed by the Commercial press in advancing these propositions. They provide a "psychological" rather than "social" context for the crime; the Left press takes scant notice of these propositions.

Propositions

Comes from a family of civil servants / father held high government job / father was teacher / grandfather was also teacher / had happy childhood / no financial problems / student life without hardships / had only the normal money problems of all young couples / borrowed from parents / built a beautiful villa (Total:10)

Propositions made by:	N	%
Left press		(10.0)
Humanité	1	5.0
Libération	-	--
Provençal	1	5.0
Commercial press		(35.0)
France Soir	3	15.0
Par. Libéré	3	15.0
Indépendant	1	5.0
Right press		(55.0)
Aurore	4	20.0
Figaro	4	20.0
Midi Libre	3	15.0
Total	20	100.0

Modest means, heavy burdens

The Left press leads in suggesting a very different context for the crime. The third passage points to the modest means and heavy financial burdens of the Amiel family. It notes the insufficiency of even two teachers' incomes to pay for the cost of a suburban house. The significance of the house for Jean Amiel, and his generosity and good humor amidst difficult circumstances receive emphasis in this version.

Propositions

Comes from respectable family of modest means / father was customs inspector in small town / Jean wanted very much to own a nice home / his house cost more than he could afford / has been heavily indebted / even two teacher incomes in the family not sufficient / the house was his dream / his happiness / his success / the crowning point of his career / he decided to work double and triple time / still generous enough to give free English lessons to daughter of a colleague / looked to the future with optimism / and good humor (Total:14)

Propositions made by:	N	%
Left press		(57.5)
Humanité	13	27.7
Libération	10	21.3
Provençal	4	8.5
Commercial press		(27.6)
France Soir	8	17.0
Par. Libéré	4	8.5
Indépendant	1	2.1
Right press		(14.7)
Aurore	1	2.1
Figaro	3	6.4
Midi Libre	3	6.4
Total	47	100.0

A defective personality

The fourth passage depicts Jean Amiel as a defective personality: pedantic, irascible, vindictive, provoking the wrath and revenge of students. The France Soir and the rightist Aurore take the lead in presenting or citing these statements.

Propositions

Often pedantic / inflexible / lacks warmth / takes refuge in rules / tried to gain respect through severity / lacks self-confidence / lacks real authority / tries to frighten students / rules by terror / beats students / brutal / loses temper in class / especially with younger students who offer less resistance / envies students for their youth and money / isolated from reality / worthless outside his field / students tried to take revenge / wanted to teach him a lesson (Total:18)

Propositions made by:	N	%
Left press		(21.2)
Humanité	2	6.1
Libération	4	12.1
Provençal	1	3.0
Commercial press		(45.3)
France Soir	7	21.2
Par. Libéré	4	12.1
Indépendant	4	12.1
Right press		(33.4)
Aurore	7	21.2
Figaro	2	6.1
Midi Libre	2	6.1
Total	33	100.0

A "knight with a sad face"

The fifth passage paints yet another portrait: a pitiful, harrassed young man in a state of near collapse from worry and overwork, yet inspiring respect (though not a deserved promotion); a kind of "chevalier a la triste figure" - knight with a sad face. The Left press leads with nearly a half of all statements advancing such propositions.

Propositions

Still appears youthful / like a "knight with a sad face" / one of those "nice guys" with no strong personality / overworked / timid / sensitive about pranks and taunting / worried about financial problems / a plodder / students say he gave signs of fainting in class / used stimulants to keep him awake / sleeping pills to make him sleep / no complaints were reported to the Inspector / superiors generally commended his work / yet he was not promoted / gave private lessons to supplement his income / corrected papers of correspondence students / worked as interpreter at the airport / corrected baccalaureate exams at night / prepared the distribution of awards at the Lycée / drafted the scholastic reports / attended meetings of the disciplinary council / colleagues held him in high esteem / wrote him in prison to assure him of their sympathy / offered financial help to Mme. Amiel (Total:24)

Propositions made by:	N	%
Left press		(49.6)
Humanité	23	20.4
Libération	18	15.9
Provençal	15	13.3
Commercial press		(28.3)
France Soir	15	13.3
Par. Libéré	7	6.2
Indépendant	10	8.8
Right press		(22.1)
Aurore	12	10.6
Figaro	4	3.5
Midi Libre	9	8.0
Total	113	100.0

A contemptible wretch

The propositions brought together in the sixth passage counter the pathetic (and sympathetic) image of the "knight with the sad face" with a stark extension of the theme of defective personality: Amiel is a contemptible mental and physical wretch, a liar and a coward. He is indifferent to his (possibly intentional) crime, and is perhaps more concerned about bloodstains in his car than about the life of his innocent victim. The right wing Aurore is in the lead in citing these propositions, followed by France Soir and Parisien Libéré.

Propositions

Weak / cowardly / introverted / suffering from a persecution complex / impulsive / heartless / lacking any sense of humor / having an exaggerated sense of pride / acting with unbelievable rashness / possibly even aimed his gun / grudgingly got his car to take the fallen boy / told the others not to let Alain's blood stain the seats / hid his act as long as possible / kept a cowardly silence / lied / became entangled in contradictions / a miserable physical speciman / ascetic features / tall and thin / long hands / prematurely aged / but does not appear particularly tormented (Total:22)

Propositions made by:	N	%
Left press		(23.8)
Humanité	7	11.9
Libération	7	11.9
Provençal	-	--
Commercial press		(33.9)
France Soir	10	16.9
Par. Libéré	9	15.3
Indépendant	1	1.7
Right press		(42.4)
Aurore	17	28.8
Figaro	5	8.5
Midi Libre	3	5.1
Total	59	100.0

A heart-rending affair

Counterpointing that hostile version is a heart-rending story of despair, pathos, and family devotion, advanced mainly in the Left press.

Propositions

Amiel sobs when his parents enter the court / displays tender affection for his wife / dares not look at his mother during the trial / father dies, overcome with shame and grief / does not attend funeral to save his mother from sight of her son between gendarmes / Mme. Amiel (the wife) is beautiful / amazing / resembles tragic Antigone / pathetic in her attempt to defend her husband (Total:9)

Propositions made by:	N	%
Left press		(64.0)
Humanité	7	28.0
Libération	8	32.0
Provençal	1	4.0
Commercial press		(24.0)
France Soir	3	12.0
Par. Libéré	1	4.0
Indépendant	2	8.0
Right press		(12.0)
Aurore	1	4.0
Figaro	1	4.0
Midi Libre	1	4.0
Total	25	100.0

A national disgrace

Another version, however, presents Mme. Amiel a shrew, the family in discord, the trial unfair, Amiel's promotion while in prison a scandal. The whole affair is regarded a national disgrace. The Right press reported nearly two-thirds of all such statements.

Propositions

Mme. Amiel has a harsh and cold face / she goaded her husband into taking action against the pranksters / she is heartless / quarrelsome and nagging / treats her husband cruelly during the trial / teachers testifying at the trial were biased / they concealed Amiel's abnormalities / the verdict was too lenient / spectators protested the leniency of the jury / many readers wrote indignant letters / Amiel was promoted while in jail / a teacher cannot be a killer / it is a national disgrace / invitation to anarchy / Amiel must leave France (Total:15)

Propositions made by:	N	%
Left press		(3.3)
Humanité	1	3.3
Libération	-	--
Provençal	-	--
Commercial press		(33.4)
France Soir	5	16.7
Par. Libéré	3	10.0
Indépendant	2	6.7
Right press		(63.3)
Aurore	8	26.7
Figaro	7	23.3
Midi Libre	4	13.3
Total	30	100.0

Unjust conditions

The version favored by the Left press is very different. It dwells on conditions which frustrate the efforts and try the patience of teachers and other "intellectuals." No one, it claims, can judge or punish such a crime more than the teacher's own remorse. It is not the verdict that is seen as "disgraceful"; it is "the catastrophic situation in secondary education."

Propositions

It is difficult to judge such an extraordinary crime / it doesn't make sense / teachers like children / Amiel was interested in his students / he made them work / he gained their respect / now he has lost this respect / brought unhappiness to his family / must leave his profession / his home / his own remorse is his greatest punishment / crime was unfortunate result of long exasperation / of taunting and pranks which followed him into his private life / he is to be pitied as are all intellectuals jeered at by nonentities / humiliated / working under great nervous strain / always watched, always supervised / underpaid / overworked / despite exacting preparation for their profession / forced to seek outside jobs / victims of unjust conditions / the trial failed to reveal the catastrophic situation in secondary education (Total:23)

Propositions made by:	N	%
Left press		(58.3)
Humanité	15	19.0
Libération	19	24.1
Provençal	12	15.2
Commercial press		(26.7)
France Soir	7	8.9
Par. Libéré	7	8.9
Indépendant	7	8.9
Right press		(15.2)
Aurore	8	10.1
Figaro	3	3.8
Midi Libre	1	1.3
Total	79	100.0

Not a political case

All papers reported that the Amiels (as most teachers in France) had leftist political leanings. But only the press of the Right carried allegations that they really had no political convictions and did not take part, or at least not willingly, in the teachers' protest strike of May 30, 1958. Some of these propositions claim that neither politics nor conditions help explain the crime; other statements allege intimidation and class bias among teachers.

Propositions

Political explanations are out of place / religious motives are not involved / it has been claimed that the prankster was a Jesuit college student out to get a leftist public school teacher, but that is not the case / overwork and nervousness are no explanation / true causes are unknown / Amiel has no political opinion / he was never much concerned with politics / he did not join the teachers' strike on May 30 / he joined the strike but didn't know why / he merely followed the instructions of the union / he went out of a feeling of solidarity, not of conviction / the teaching profession smothers differences of opinion / yet such differences exist even at the same school / the Inspectors often have to arbitrate political quarrels / many teachers show hostility toward students from well-to-do families (Total:15)

Propositions made by:	N	%
Left press		(5.8)
Humanité	1	2.9
Libération	-	--
Provençal	1	2.9
Commercial press		(38.2)
France Soir	8	23.5
Par. Libéré	2	5.9
Indépendant	3	8.8
Right press		(55.8)
Aurore	6	17.6
Figaro	8	23.5
Midi Libre	5	14.7
Total	34	100.0

Politics has much to do with it

In contrast with "non-political" explanations, the socio-political background is most explicitly invoked, again, in the Left press. The propositions of this passage expose the bitter conflict which beset France during this period and suggest its relevance to the tragic accident on the eve of St. Jean.

Propositions

Political explanations are germane to this case / so are psychological explanations / Amiel was a man of the Left / his wife had leftist convictions / they were not sectarians or militants / took modest part in the activities of SFIO (Socialist Party) / went on strike May 30 to defend republican liberties / teachers are united in that cause / rich students and their families often feel superior to teachers / many of these students are spoiled and corrupt / they set themselves up as critics of the political convictions of teachers / sons of Algerian colons who settled in Perpignan show no respect for decency or democracy / are partisans of paratroop General Massu / formed a Committee of Public Safety imitating the Algerian rebellion against the Republic / once they beat up the concierge of the Lycée / threatened three teachers with death, including the secretary of the teachers union / wrote threatening letter to the local Communist weekly newspaper / instigated the formation of a "James Dean Club" of Perpignan / members were recruited from among the worst pranksters of the "rich kids" in town / inspired by the misdeeds of American youth / committed acts of vandalism in the school building to protest the teachers' strike of May 30 / made teachers with republican and anti-fascist ideas their major targets (Total:22)

Propositions made by:	N	%
Left press		(68.3)
Humanité	21	35.0
Libération	14	23.3
Provençal	6	10.0
Commercial press		(20.0)
France Soir	7	11.7
Par. Libéré	3	5.0
Indépendant	2	3.3
Right press		(11.7)
Aurore	3	5.0
Figaro	1	1.7
Midi Libre	3	5.0
Total	60	100.0

TABLES AND FIGURES

Table 1 presents circulation and readership figures available to this study, and measures of space devoted to the Amiel case in each of the papers.

Table 2 indicates the direction and magnitude of the correlations among papers. Correlation coefficients have been computed on the basis of the percentage of propositions advanced by each newspaper out of the total number of propositions comprising each passage. If we take the last passage above ("Politics has much to do with it") as an example, we can see that e.g. Humanité advanced 21 out of the 22 propositions in that passage. For purposes of computing correlations across all passages, this gave Humanité a score of 95 percent (rather than 35 percent, which is its percentage share of propositions advanced by all papers).

Table 3 presents the results of measurement of space devoted to subjects involving education in 12 Paris dailies in January, 1961. This tabulation has no direct bearing on the case study of the Amiel affair; it gives some indication of general allocation of space at another time period.

The Figures illustrate certain findings of the case study of differential tendencies. Figure 1 lists the passages by title in order of percentage share of representation from Left to Right. The letters L, C, and R mark the relative position of the Left, commercial, and Right press groups on a scale which indicates percentage point distances between them. (Each dot is one percentage point.) The boxed letter marks the press group with the highest percentage share of representation in each passage. (Percentages on which this and the following Figure were based are those accompanying the passages above.)

Figure 2 is another graphic representation of the shifting ideological perspective. It indicates the approximate percentage share of representation of each newspaper and each press group in each of the passages.

Figure 3 is a corregram based on the two highest correlations for each paper (boxed numbers on Table 2). It gives an approximate representation of the position of individual newspapers in relation to one another and on a continuum of ideological perspectives and political tendencies ranging from Left to Right.

TABLE 1

NEWSPAPERS STUDIED AND SPACE DEVOTED TO L'AFFAIR AMIEL

			Space devoted the Amiel affair (in square inches)			
	Circulation[1]	Readership[2]	Total space (100%)	Percent on front page	Percent pictures	Number of stories on Amiel affair
Commercial press						
France Soir	1,350,000	2,124,000	772	12%	17%	10
Parisien Libéré	900,000	1,933,000	384	27%	19%	9
Indépendant	---	198,000	736	64%	29%	11
Left press						
Humanité	200,000	283,000	336	19%	4%	6
Libération	110,000	148,000	658	19%	5%	7
Provençal	205,000	690,000	520	43%	43%	7
Right press						
Aurore	472,000	870,000	1,036	7%	27%	9
Figaro	480,000	1,018,000	252	28%	--	8
Midi Libre	---	577,000	1,120	27%	14%	10

[1] Circulation figures listed are those included in John C. Merrill's Handbook of the Foreign Press, Baton Rouge, La.: Louisiana State University Press, 1959.

[2] Readership estimates were obtained from unpublished 1958 data at the National Institute of Statistics, Paris.

TABLE 2

PRODUCT MOMENT CORRELATIONS OF PERCENTS OF PROPOSITIONS ADVANCED BY EACH NEWSPAPER OUT OF ALL PROPOSITIONS IN EACH PASSAGE

	Left press			Commercial press			Right press		
	Humanité	Libération	Provençal	France Soir	Paris. Libéré	Indépendant	Aurore	Figaro	Midi Libre
Left press									
Humanité		$\boxed{.92}$	$\boxed{.74}$	.32	.11	.31	.00	-.54	.00
Libération			$\boxed{.69}$	.15	.08	.39	-.49	-.67	-.27
Provençal				.38	.29	$\boxed{.70}$	-.18	-.30	.18
Comm. press									
France Soir					$\boxed{.45}$	$\boxed{.40}$	.17	.29	$\boxed{.67}$
Par. Libéré						.18	$\boxed{.53}$	.23	.38
Indépendant							.08	.00	.37
Right press									
Aurore								$\boxed{.41}$	.27
Figaro									$\boxed{.73}$
Midi Libre									

NOTE: $\boxed{\quad}$ marks the two highest correlations for each newspaper

p < .10 - r = ±47
p < .50 - r = ±55
p < .01 - r = ±68

TABLE 3

SPACE[1] DEVOTED TO NEWS, FEATURES, EDITORIALS AND PICTURES RELEVANT TO TEACHING, SCHOOLS, AND UNIVERSITIES IN 12 PARIS DAILIES DURING JANUARY, 1961

Newspaper[3]	Percent of total non-advertising space devoted to teaching and school affairs, problems	Percent of education space devoted to fatal accident on playground of a lycée[2]	Percent of total education space on front page
France-Soir (C)	.4	85.0	7.5
Parisien Libéré (C)	.6	62.0	28.2
Paris-Presse	.6	75.2	30.1
Le Monde	.9	6.5	--
Paris-Jour	.2	40.0	9.0
Combat	2.0	--	6.0
Figaro (R)	1.0	6.1	1.2
Aurore (R)	.9	37.7	11.1
Humanité (L)	1.2	37.5	8.8
Libération (L)	1.3	4.9	39.7
Le Populaire	.5	--	--
La Croix	.4	--	26.1

[1] Space was measured in square inches of non-advertising surface.

[2] Stories and pictures devoted solely to reporting the accident and related discussion of student safety problems.

[3] The letters in parentheses follow the names of papers included in the case study of the "Amiel affair" (although the time period of this measurement was considerably later than the periods used in the proposition analysis). (C) means a paper in the commercial group, (R) in the political Right, and (L) in the Left press.

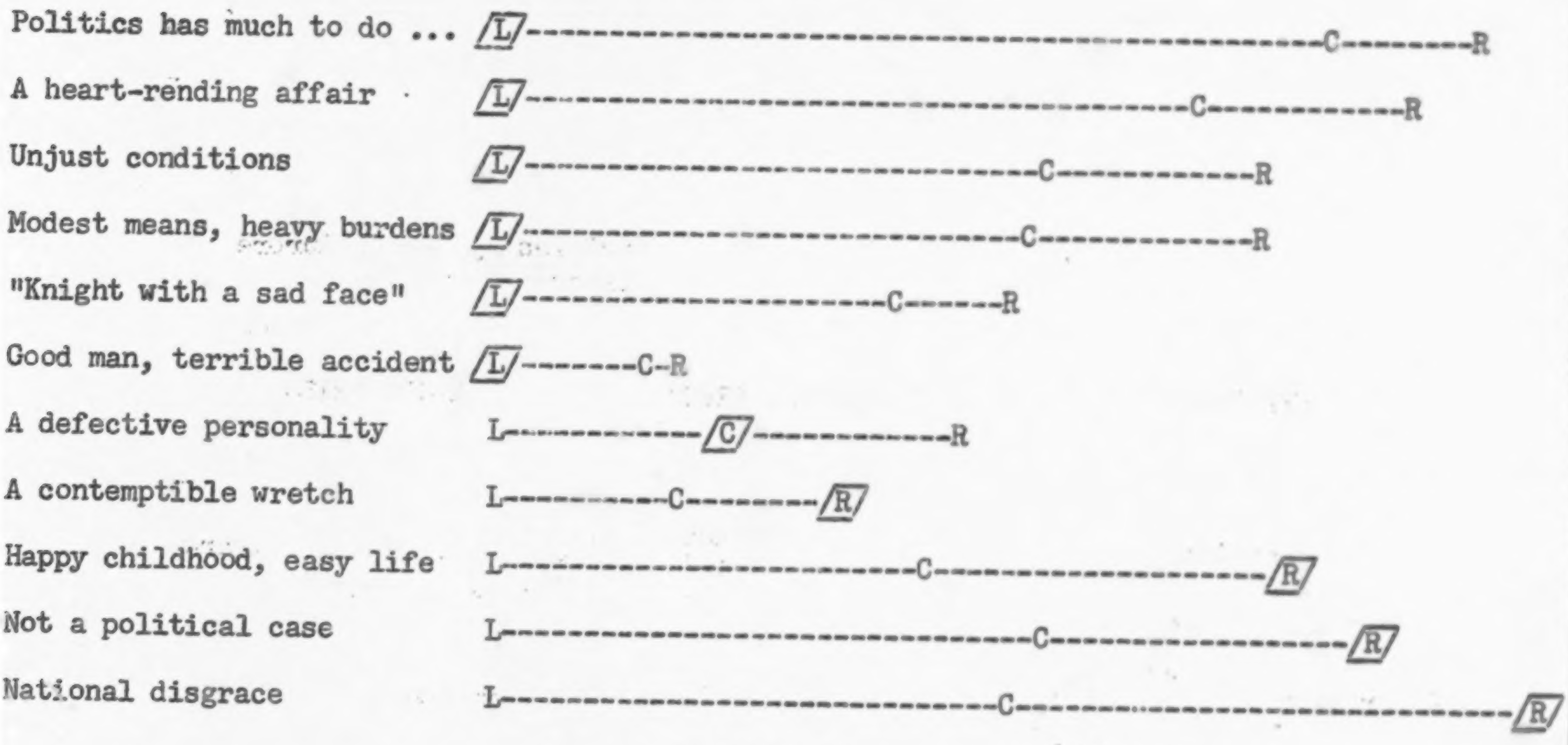

FIGURE 1

RELATIVE DISTANCES BETWEEN LEFT, COMMERCIAL, AND RIGHT PRESS GROUPS IN PERCENTAGE SHARE OF REPRESENTATION IN EACH PASSAGE

Each dash represents one percentage point difference. The boxed letter marks the press group with the highest percentage share of representation.

Passages in order of percentage of representation in	Left press	Commercial press	Right press
Politics has much to do...	HHHHHHH LLLLL PP	SS P I	A F M
A heart-rending affair	HHHHHH LLLLLL P	SS P II	A F M
Unjust conditions	HHHH LLLLL PPP	SS PP II	AA F M
Modest means, heavy burdens	HHHHH LLLL PP	SSS PP I	A F M
"Knight with sad face"	HHHH LLL PPP	SSS P II	AA F MM
Good man, terrible accident	HHH LLL PP	SSS PP I	AA FF MM
A defective personality	H LL P	SSSS PP II	AAAA F M
A contemptible wretch	HH LL	SSS PPP I	AAAAAA FF M
Happy childhood, easy life	H L	SSS PPP I	AAAA FFFF MMM
Not a political case	H L	SSSSS P II	AAA FFFFF MMM
National disgrace	H	SSS PP I	AAAAA FFFFF MMM

KEY:	Left press	Commercial press	Right press
	H L P	S P I	A F M
	H-Humanité	S-France Soir	A-Aurore
	L-Libération	P-Parisien Libéré	F-Figaro
	P-Provençal	I-Indépendant	M-Midi Libre

Each letter represents approximately 5% of all propositions

FIGURE 2
THE SHIFTING IDEOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVE

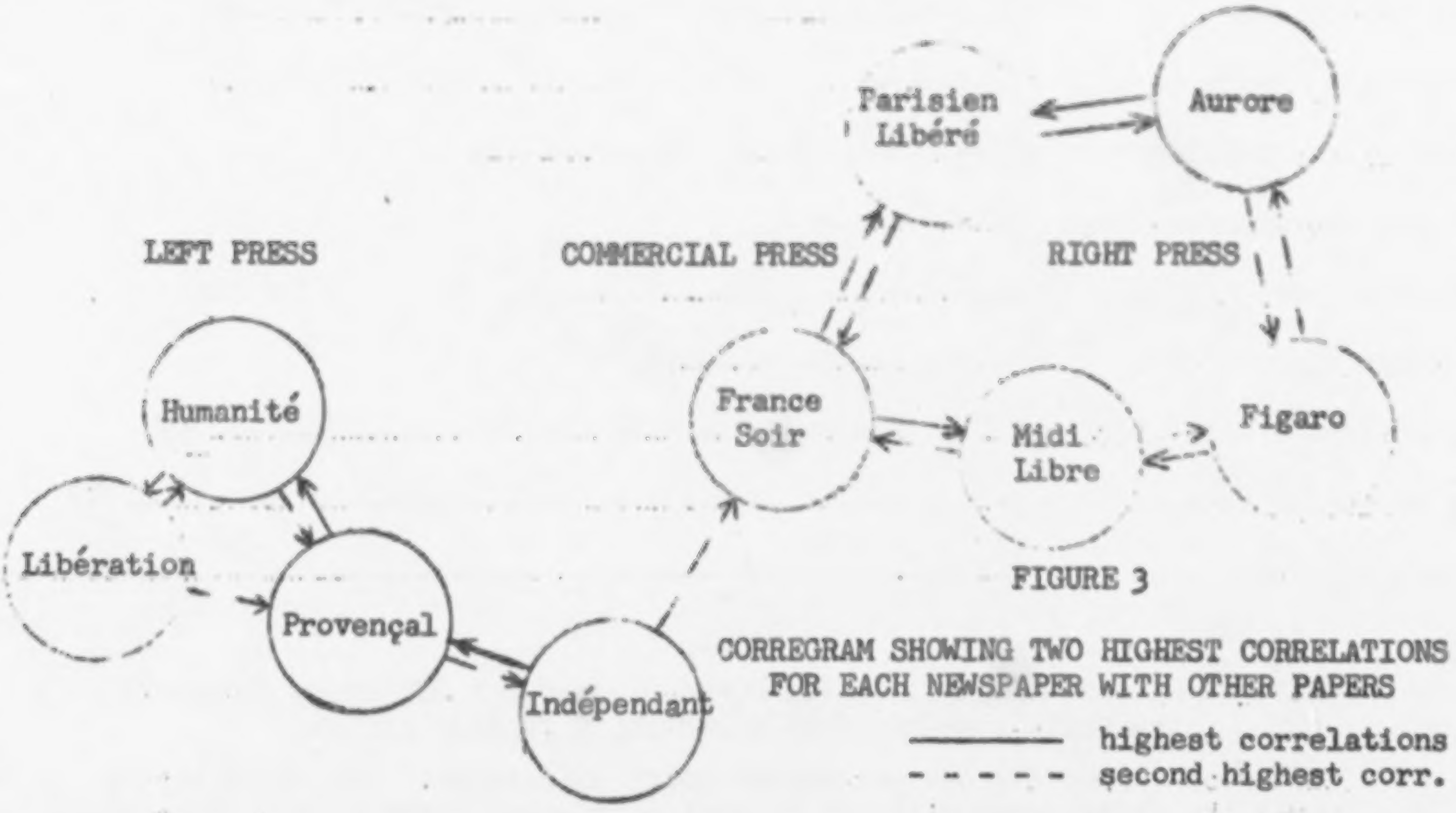
Parisien Libéré
Aurore
LEFT PRESS
COMMERCIAL PRESS
RIGHT PRESS
Humanité
France Soir
Midi Libre
Figaro
Libération
Provençal
Indépendant
highest correlations
second highest corr.

FIGURE 3

CORREGRAM SHOWING TWO HIGHEST CORRELATIONS FOR EACH NEWSPAPER WITH OTHER PAPERS

Appendix III

THE COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF MASS MEDIA FICTION AND DRAMA; INTRODUCTION AND GENERAL DESCRIPTION

The comparative study of mass media fiction and drama was based on the analysis of full-length feature films, television and radio drama, and mass-circulation periodical fiction. The term "story" is used throughout this study to include films and programs as well as magazine stories.

The basic units of analysis were stories and fictional characters depicted in the stories. Regardless of the national origin of the stories, materials were included in the sample of the country in which they were produced or published and disseminated to general mass audiences during the time periods of analysis.

All materials were located in the country of production or publication and analyzed by native speakers of that country. All analysts used the same instruments and followed the same procedures of analysis.

Analysts were recruited and trained in each country by the investigator, with the help of cooperating social scientists and other professional researchers. The standard procedure for training analysts consisted of practice analyses on "test stories" selected for that purpose. Each practice analysis was followed by checking of answers and discussion of procedure until analysts became familiar with the purposes, rules, and procedures of the analysis.

The instruments of analysis (reproduced in Appendix VI-B) were translated where English-speaking (bilingual) analysts were not available. Every attempt was made to secure competent analysts, to focus their attention on careful and accurate observation of explicit elements of presentation, and to assure uniform interpretation of instructions, questions, and procedures. The training period served to screen analysts and to bring those qualified to an acceptable level of reliability and proficiency before actual analysis began. In the course of the analysis itself, spot checks, joint observation by pairs of analysts, and duplicate analyses of the same stories were made to test the diligence of the analysts, the reliability of observations, and the efficiency of the procedure itself. Complete multiple analyses were performed on a total of 114 stories. Two-thirds of all data represent the joint judgment of two or more analysts. Tests of internal consistency were also devised to evaluate the work of the analysts. Data which proved to be deficient or in which the investigator lacked confidence for any reason were returned for review and revision.

Instructions and criteria

Instructions to analysts included the following:

> The purpose of the content analysis is to obtain objective, systematic and reliable descriptions of relevant content. The purpose is not to express personal views regarding content (except when labeled "personal comment"), nor to speculate about possible intentions or effects.

Answer only those questions for which clear answer or indication is given in material. Be sure you can defend your answers; do not speculate or "read into" material.

Express the way things and characters are presented and judged in the context of the material, not the way you personally feel about them.

Criteria for selecting relevant stories were stated as follows:

The story (including illustrations, if any), film, or program will be considered a unit of material. The significant occurrence of a relevant element makes the entire unit the subject of analysis.

In general, relevant elements include portrayal, appearance, description or discussion of the following:

1. Teacher, professor, instructor, coach, other instructional or teaching personnel employed by formal educational institution, even if appears in roles other than teaching or instruction. (Not private tutor, governess, apprentice or student teacher.)

2. School or college administrator (supervisor, principal, dean, president, etc.), whether major role is as administrator or other.

3. Student or pupil when associated with formal educational institution and presented in a student role or in interaction with teacher or administrator.

4. Class, classroom or classroom instruction in any formal educational institution.

5. School or college life in general associated with any formal educational institution.

6. Any public or private school, formal educational program or institution from kindergarten through primary, secondary, and higher education, even when presented in aspects other than primarily educational. Also trade and professional schools, colleges, academies, military and reform schools, other formal educational institutions. Do not include apprenticeship, on-the-job or other informal training programs or educational programs when not conducted by a primarily educational institution.

The relevant element is significant if it is not likely to be overlooked by the average reader or viewer, if it is (or likely to be) mentioned in summary or review of the material, and if it is sufficiently delineated to make analysis possible.

Instructions for selecting characters for separate analysis were the following:

> Select the most important and/or representative characters in each unit for analysis and description. Characters in the following categories should be selected:
>
> 1. Teachers, etc. (see 1. above)
> 2. Administrators, etc. (see 2. above)
> 3. Students, pupils (see 3. above)
> 4. Friend, relative, spouse or other associate of each of the above
> 5. Other professional (lawyer, doctor, engineer, etc.) playing a significant part in the unit
> 6. Community representative (board member, trustee, government official) having official connection with school or educational institution
>
> It is important to select a well-rounded representation of characters from each unit. Include all major relevant characters, and such others as necessary to indicate each character's main relationships to other people.

Complete instructions, the instruments of analysis, and sample answer forms will be found in Appendix VI-B.

All observations were recorded on uniform answer forms (6½ x 7½ McBee Keysort cards) and required both numerical and write-in type answers. Each story and each character was analyzed on a separate form. Different sets of instructions and questions (Forms B and C) were used for the analysis of stories and of characters. All completed analysis forms, and, whenever possible the original stories (or scripts of films and programs) were shipped by mail to the headquarters of the study in Urbana, Illinois, for checking and further processing. All numerical codes of accepted forms were punched into IBM cards for machine processing. Other information was obtained from the keysort cards and the original materials.

Study periods and media samples

Study periods and media samples were governed by necessity. The minimum objective was to obtain samples representing significant portions of the relevant output of mass media systems of the different countries. As already noted in the account of the study in Appendix I, this objective was only partially reached. The tabulations included in Appendixes III-A and III-B show the exact sizes and compositions of the samples of stories and characters.

The form of the tabulations was determined in part by the subject and purpose of the analysis reported in each subsequent Appendix, and in part by the size and composition of the samples. Data were grouped in such a way as to avoid, whenever possible, the presentation of results based on very small numbers. Appendixes III-A and III-B should be consulted for tabulations of numbers involved in all categories used in other sections.

The study periods in each country were those which proved to be feasible with available time, resources, and personnel. Despite the use of the term "sample" to refer to the body of analyzed material in each country, there was actually no sampling involved except in terms of time periods covered; all relevant stories found to have been produced during the time periods for which media materials were searched, screened, or monitored were selected and, whenever available, analyzed.

The conditions of the analysis, and the nature, scope, and composition of the samples should be kept in mind in the interpretation of the results. This section concludes with a listing of media sources and time periods of analysis in each country. The combined national samples included 1,046 stories and 2,800 characters. Titles and names are not listed here but are on file at the Institute of Communications Research, University of Illinois.

Film. Summaries and synopses of all full-length feature films were used to identify those films which contained relevant portrayals. These films were then secured from distribution companies or central archives for screening and analysis. Some titles, especially those produced by small or defunct companies, were not available. The availability of films limited the size of the film samples as well as the study periods covered. Relevant films exhibited during the periods of the analysis were, of course, viewed in local movie theaters.

Broadcast drama. Relevant television programs and radio plays were located by searching the files of broadcast network story departments and obtaining tapes, films, and scripts for analysis, and by periods of monitoring current drama programs on the air.

Network stations were monitored in all countries. Only in the U.S. did more than three relevant plays come from the same series. These series, and the number of relevant programs from each, were the following: Dobie Gillis (13); Father Knows Best (8); Loretta Young Show (8); Make Room for Daddy (6); My Three Sons (5); June Allyson Show (5); Bachelor Father (4). Sixty-six other programs and films monitored on network stations accounted for the remainder of the 131 TV plays and films analyzed. In Great Britain, the 69 broadcast plays analyzed came from 41 different programs none of which yielded more than three. Other countries had no continuing series contributing to the samples; each relevant play came from a different program.

Radio plays were included with televised plays and films in the category of broadcast drama in all countries except the U.S. (where no relevant radio plays were found) and the U.S.S.R. (where only films were analyzed).

Magazine fiction. Mass circulation magazines containing fiction were pre-screened to determine which were most likely to carry relevant stories. After the pre-screening, selected magazines were read for specified time periods and all relevant stories published during those periods were analyzed.

In the U.S., popular magazines containing most relevant (or, in fact, any) fiction were found to be women's service magazines (McCall's, Cosmopolitan, Ladies' Home Journal, and Good Housekeeping), teenage and youth magazines (Seventeen, American Girl, Ingenue, Datebook, Teen, Boys' Life, and Jack & Jill), confession magazines

(*Secrets*, *New Secrets*, *True Confessions*, and *True Story*), and the *Saturday Evening Post*. A special screening of the *Post* over an extended time period augmented the analysis of the other magazines.

In Great Britain, West Germany, and France, women's magazines were found to be the almost exclusive source of mass periodical fiction. In Poland, Czechoslovakia, and Hungary there are no "consumer magazines" in the sense of mass circulation periodicals aimed at large publics of consumers of advertised products; fiction is published in a great variety of more specialized periodicals, as well as women's and youth magazines, and in newspapers. The search for relevant materials was limited to the largest circulation magazines of general interest such as *Panorama* and *Filipinka* in Poland, *Kvety* in Czechoslovakia, and *Nök Lapja* and *Szabad Föld* in Hungary.

The following list gives an account of sources, time periods, and numbers of relevant stories and characters involved in the comparative analysis of mass media fiction and drama in all countries:

Countries and media	Time periods	Stories	Characters
United States			
Feature films (theatrical)	Jan. 1, 1950 - Dec. 31, 1961	100	316
Television drama	July 1, 1960 - April 30, 1961		
Plays produced for television		110	318
Feature films on television		21	59
Magazine fiction			
General	Sept. 1, 1960 - Feb. 30, 1961	18	41
Teenage and youth	-"- -"-	34	82
Confession stories	-"- -"-	19	55
Saturday Evening Post	Feb. 1, 1956 - June 30, 1960	56	170
All-media totals		358	1041
Great Britain			
Feature films (theatrical)	Jan. 1, 1950 - Dec. 31, 1961	43	145
Radio plays	Sept. 1, 1960 - Sept. 1, 1961	16	31
Television drama	Jan. 1, 1960 - Dec. 31, 1961		
Plays produced for television		44	155
Feature films on television		9	18
Magazine fiction			
General (women's)	Aug. 1, 1960 - Jan. 3, 1961	45	118
Woman magazine	Jan. 1, 1956 - June 30, 1960	63	161
All-media totals		220	628
West Germany			
Feature films (theatrical)	Jan. 1, 1950 - Dec. 31, 1961	67	216
Radio plays	Oct. 1, 1957 - June 30, 1961	17	28
Television drama	Feb. 1, 1961 - Dec. 31, 1961	12	24
Magazine fiction	Sept. 1, 1956 - Sept. 30, 1961	52	98

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Countries and media	Time periods	Stories	Characters
Austria			
Feature films (theatrical)	Jan. 1, 1952 - Dec. 31, 1961	13	26
Radio plays	Jan. 1, 1948 - Dec. 31, 1960	7	14
All media totals (West Germany and Austria)		168	406
France			
Feature films (theatrical)	Jan. 1, 1946 - Dec. 31, 1960	23	69
Radio plays	Jan. 1, 1959 - Apr. 30, 1961	12	35
Television drama	Nov. 1, 1960 - Nov. 1, 1961	2	5
Magazine fiction (women's)	Dec. 1, 1960 - Jan. 31, 1961	9	18
All media totals		46	127
Poland			
Feature films (theatrical)	Jan. 1, 1954 - Dec. 31, 1961	20	80
Radio plays	Jan. 1, 1959 - March 31, 1961	26	69
Television drama	-"- -"-	14	37
Magazine fiction	March 1, 1959 - Sept. 30, 1961	18	31
All media totals		78	217
Czechoslovakia			
Feature films (theatrical)	Jan. 1, 1951 - Dec. 31, 1961	100	191
Radio plays	Nov. 1, 1961 - March 1, 1961	5	16
Television drama	-"- -"-	4	18
Magazine fiction	Jan. 1, 1953 - Dec. 31, 1960	8	16
All media totals		117	241
Hungary			
Feature films (theatrical)	Jan. 1, 1952 - Dec. 31, 1960	16	49
Radio plays	Jan. 1, 1958 - Dec. 31, 1960	9	27
Magazine fiction	Aug. 1, 1960 - Oct. 31, 1960	19	20
All media totals		44	96
U.S.S.R.			
Feature films (selected)	Jan. 1, 1950 - Dec. 31, 1961	15	44

Material obtained from the analysis of 13 feature films and 7 radio plays produced in Austria was included in the West German sample in all tabulations. West German and Austrian films and programs are produced in the same language and circulate relatively freely in the same markets.

The 15 films and 44 characters analyzed in the U.S.S.R. were deemed insufficient for presentation in most of the tabulations. Where presented, however these data were not included in the Eastern Europe area totals but were tabulated separately.

Tabulations group data by countries, by areas, or both. Area totals include, aside from U.S. data, combined results for Great Britain, West Germany, and France under the heading of Western Europe, and for Poland, Czechoslovakia, and Hungary under the heading of Eastern Europe.

Except where otherwise specified, no weighting was employed in the grouping of data by media or countries. The proportions of media and country representation in all country and area totals are shown in Appendixes III-A and III-B.

Appendix III-A deals with characteristics of the samples of stories and Appendix III-B of the fictional characters.

TABLE 1

NUMBER OF STORIES BY MEDIA AND LEVELS OF EDUCATION; ALL COUNTRIES AND AREAS[1]

	U.S.	WEST EUR. Total	Great Brit.	West Germ.	France	EAST EUR. Total	Poland	Czechslov.	Hungary	U.S.S.R.[2]
ALL STORIES	358	434	220	168	46	239	78	117	44	15
Films	100	146	43	80	23	136	20	100	16	15
Broadcast drama	131	119	69	36	14	58	40	9	9	-
Mass periodical fiction	127	169	108	52	9	45	18	8	19	-
Level of education associated with the stories:										
Primary	65	73	31	25	17	79	14	49	16	5
Secondary	142	171	78	72	21	73	26	33	14	8
Higher	141	141	79	56	6	74	34	31	9	2
Other, unspecified, several	10	49	32	15	2	13	4	4	5	-

---

[1] Special studies (such as in U.S. films produced prior to 1950) which are not used in international comparisons are not included in this tabulation.

[2] Soviet films are not included in Eastern Europe totals in this or any other tabulation.

TABLE 2

CERTAIN FORMAT TYPES BY MEDIA (IN AREAS), AND BY COUNTRY[1] (IN PERCENT OF STORIES)

	U.S.	WEST EUR. Total	Great Brit.	West Germ.	France	EAST EUR. Total	Poland	Czechslov.	Hungary
Comedy (tot.)	22	18	15	21	17	18	9	25	14
Films	26	30	*	*	*	24	*	*	*
Broadcast drama	38	20	*	*	*	14	*	*	*
Magazine fiction	2	5	*	*	*	4	*	*	*
Musical (tot.)	1	1	-	2	-	3	3	1	2
Films	4	2	*	*	*	-	*	*	*
Broadcast drama	-	-	*	*	*	7	*	*	*
Magazine fiction	-	-	*	*	*	-	*	*	*
Fantasy, horror, science fiction (tot.)	3	2	2	1	2	1	4	-	-
Films	7	3	*	*	*	-	*	*	*
Broadcast drama	3	2	*	*	*	5	*	*	*
Magazine fiction	-	1	*	*	*	-	*	*	*
Crime, detective (tot.)	7	6	3	8	6	2	4	1	2
Films	6	7	*	*	*	3	*	*	*
Broadcast drama	12	7	*	*	*	-	*	*	*
Magazine fiction	2	3	*	*	*	2	*	*	*

---

[1] "Format types" are clear-cut and usually stereotyped categories used in trade publications and elsewhere for rough classification.

*Not tabulated.

TABLE 3

CERTAIN FORMAT TYPES; COMPARISONS BETWEEN VARIOUS U.S. FILM SAMPLES[1] (IN PERCENT OF ALL FILMS IN SAMPLE)

Description of sample	Total no. of films (100%)	Comedy	Musical	Fantasy, horror, science fiction	Crime, detective	Western, adventure
		Percents				
All films produced 1950-1960 excluding those portraying teachers, schools, etc. (Reviewed[2])	2,957	12	7	5	19	30
Films portraying teachers, schools, etc.:						
All relevant films produced 1931-1950. (Reviewed[2])	301	23	13	3	16	5
All relevant films produced 1950-1960. (Reviewed[2])	160	20	8	11	12	10
Relevant film screened[3] for comparative study (produced 1950-1960)	100	26	4	7	6	1

---

[1] These figures permit comparisons between format types of all films excluding those which portray elements considered relevant to this study and several samples of relevant films. Other variables that may be compared, aside from relevance, are time of production, source of analysis (whether reviewed or screened), and availability of the film for screening for detailed analysis and use in all international comparisons, and, of course, the number of films in the samples. The chief variables are underlined in the descriptions of the samples above.

[2] "Reviewed" means that the films were analyzed from reviews, summaries, and synopses.

[3] "Screened" means that films were seen in theaters or obtained for special screening and analysis. The "screened" sample is used in all international comparisons.

NOTE: Comparisons of thematic composition and structure between U.S. film samples can be found in Appendix IV-B.

TABLE 4

MAIN REASONS FOR SELECTION OF RELEVANT UNITS; BY COUNTRY

		Reason for selection was portrayal of:		
Country and medium	Totals (100%)	Teacher and student	Teacher but no student	Student and school but no teacher
	N	%	%	%
United States (tot.)	358	69.8	15.4	14.8
Films	100	77.0	20.0	3.0
TV drama	131	77.1	9.9	13.0
Magazine fiction	127	56.7	17.3	26.0
Great Britain (tot.)	220	40.9	31.8	27.3
Films	43	76.7	16.3	7.0
Radio-TV drama	69	44.9	24.6	30.4
Magazine fiction	108	24.1	42.6	33.3
W. Germany (tot.)	168	58.3	15.5	26.2
Films	80	61.3	12.5	26.3
Radio-TV drama	36	77.8	22.2	--
Magazine fiction	52	40.4	15.4	44.2
France (tot.)	46	69.6	19.6	10.9
Films	23	65.2	21.7	13.0
Radio-TV drama	14	85.8	7.1	7.1
Magazine fiction	9	55.6	33.3	11.1
Poland (tot.)	78	41.0	14.1	44.9
Films	20	65.0	10.0	25.0
Radio-TV drama	40	32.5	15.0	52.5
Magazine fiction	18	33.3	16.7	50.0
Czechoslovakia (tot.)	117	41.0	16.2	42.7
Films	100	37.0	17.0	46.0
Radio-TV drama	9	77.8	--	22.2
Magazine fiction	8	50.0	25.0	25.0
Hungary (tot.)	44	75.0	9.1	15.9
Films	16	93.7	6.2	--
Radio-TV drama	9	100.0	-	--
Magazine fiction	19	47.4	15.8	36.8
U.S.S.R. (films)	15	100.0	--	--

TABLE 5

NUMBER AND PERCENT OF FILMS, BROADCAST DRAMA, AND POPULAR MAGAZINE FICTION RELEVANT TO ALL PORTRAYALS OF TEACHERS, STUDENTS, AND SCHOOLS, AND TO LEVELS OF EDUCATION ASSOCIATED WITH THE PORTRAYALS; BY COUNTRY

Country and medium	Totals (All levels)		Level of education involved in the portrayals							
			Primary school		Secondary school		Higher or adult		Other, several, no level	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
United States (tot.)	358	100.0	65	100.0	142	100.0	141	100.0	10	100.0
Films	100	27.9	15	23.1	27	19.0	50	35.5	8	80.0
TV Drama	131	36.6	26	40.0	55	38.7	48	34.0	2	20.0
Magazine fiction	127	35.5	24	36.9	60	42.2	43	30.5	-	--
Great Britain (tot.)	220	100.0	31	100.0	78	100.0	79	100.0	32	100.0
Films	43	19.5	4	12.9	17	21.8	17	21.5	5	15.6
Radio-TV drama	69	31.4	6	19.3	26	33.3	24	30.4	13	40.5
Magazine fiction	108	49.1	21	67.7	35	44.9	38	48.1	14	43.6
W. Germany (tot.)	168	100.0	25	100.0	72	100.0	56	100.0	15	100.0
Films	80	47.6	13	52.0	32	44.4	29	51.9	6	40.0
Radio-TV drama	36	21.4	8	32.0	16	22.2	7	12.5	5	33.3
Magazine fiction	52	31.0	4	16.0	24	33.3	20	35.7	4	26.7
France (tot.)	46	100.0	17	100.0	21	100.0	6	100.0	2	100.0
Films	23	50.0	9	52.9	10	47.6	2	33.3	2	100.0
Radio-TV drama	14	30.4	2	11.8	8	38.1	4	66.7	-	--
Magazine fiction	9	19.6	6	35.3	3	14.3	-	--	-	--
Poland (tot.)	78	100.0	14	100.0	26	100.0	34	100.0	4	100.0
Films	20	25.6	4	28.6	7	26.9	8	23.5	1	25.0
Radio-TV drama	40	51.3	5	35.7	12	46.1	21	61.8	2	50.0
Magazine fiction	18	23.1	5	35.7	7	26.9	5	14.7	1	25.0
Czechoslovakia (tot.)	117	100.0	49	100.0	33	100.0	31	100.0	4	100.0
Films	100	85.5	43	87.7	30	90.9	25	80.6	2	50.0
Radio-TV drama	9	9.0	2	4.1	1	3.0	5	16.1	1	25.0
Magazine fiction	8	8.0	4	8.2	2	6.1	1	3.2	1	25.0
Hungary (tot.)	44	100.0	16	100.0	14	100.0	9	100.0	5	100.0
Films	16	36.4	7	43.7	5	35.7	3	33.3	1	20.0
Radio-TV drama	9	20.5	1	6.2	2	14.3	3	33.3	3	60.0
Magazine fiction	19	43.2	8	50.0	7	50.0	3	33.3	1	20.0

TABLE 6

PERCENT OF EACH LEVEL OF EDUCATION ASSOCIATED WITH THE PORTRAYALS, BY COUNTRY

Country and medium	Totals (100%)	Primary school	Secondary school	Higher or adult	Other, several, no level
	N	%	%	%	%
United States (tot.)	358	18.2	39.6	39.3	2.8
Films	100	15.0	27.0	50.0	8.0
TV drama	131	19.8	42.0	36.5	1.5
Magazine fiction	127	18.9	47.2	33.8	-
Great Britain (tot.)	220	14.1	35.5	35.9	14.5
Films	43	9.3	39.5	39.5	11.6
Radio-TV drama	69	8.7	37.7	34.8	18.8
Magazine fiction	108	19.4	32.4	35.2	13.0
W. Germany (tot.)	168	14.9	42.9	33.3	8.9
Films	80	16.3	40.0	36.3	7.5
Radio-TV drama	36	22.2	44.4	19.4	13.9
Magazine fiction	52	7.7	46.1	38.5	7.7
France (tot.)	46	37.0	45.7	13.0	4.3
Films	23	39.1	43.5	8.7	8.7
Radio-TV drama	14	14.3	57.1	28.6	-
Magazine fiction	9	66.7	33.3	--	-
Poland (tot.)	78	17.9	33.3	43.6	5.1
Films	20	20.0	35.0	40.0	5.0
Radio-TV drama	40	12.5	30.0	52.5	5.0
Magazine fiction	18	27.8	38.9	27.8	5.6
Czechoslovakia (tot.)	117	41.9	28.2	26.5	3.4
Films	100	43.0	30.0	25.0	2.0
Radio-TV drama	9	22.2	11.1	55.6	11.1
Magazine fiction	8	50.0	25.0	12.5	12.5
Hungary (tot.)	44	36.4	31.8	20.4	11.4
Films	16	43.7	31.2	18.7	6.2
Radio-TV drama	9	11.1	22.2	33.3	33.3
Magazine fiction	19	42.1	36.8	15.8	5.3
U.S.S.R. (films)	15	33.3	53.3	13.3	-

TABLE 7

PERCENT OF EACH LEVEL OF EDUCATION ASSOCIATED WITH THE PORTRAYALS; BY AREA

Area and medium	Totals (100%)	Primary school		Secondary school		Higher or adult		Other, several, no level	
	N	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
WESTERN EUROPE	434	73	16.8	171	39.4	141	32.4	49	11.3
Films	146	26	17.8	59	40.4	48	32.9	13	8.9
Radio-TV	119	16	13.4	50	42.0	35	29.4	18	15.1
Magazine fiction	169	31	18.3	62	36.7	58	34.3	18	10.7
EASTERN EUROPE	239	79	33.1	73	30.5	74	31.0	13	5.4
Films	136	54	39.7	42	30.9	36	26.5	4	2.9
Radio-TV	58	8	13.8	15	25.9	29	50.0	6	10.3
Magazine fiction	45	17	37.8	16	35.6	9	20.0	3	6.7

TABLE 8

MAIN REASONS FOR SELECTION OF RELEVANT UNITS; BY AREA.

		Reason for selection was portrayal of:		
Area and medium	Totals (100%)	Teacher and student	Teacher but no student	Student and school but no teacher
	N	%	%	%
WESTERN EUROPE	434	50.7	24.2	25.1
Films	146	66.4	15.1	18.5
Radio-TV	119	59.7	21.8	18.5
Magazine fiction	169	30.8	33.7	35.5
EASTERN EUROPE	239	47.3	14.2	38.5
Films	136	47.8	14.7	37.5
Radio-TV	58	50.0	10.3	39.7
Magazine fiction	45	42.2	17.8	40.0

TABLE 9

SHARE OF COUNTRIES, MEDIA, AND NATIONAL ORIGIN OF MEDIA IN AREA TOTALS

	Level of education involved in the portrayals									
Area, country, medium	Totals (All levels)		Primary school		Secondary school		Higher or adult		Other, several, no level	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
WESTERN EUROPE	434	100.0	73	100.0	171	100.0	141	100.0	49	100.0
Great Britain	220	50.7	31	42.5	78	45.6	79	56.0	32	65.3
W. Germany	168	38.7	25	34.2	72	42.1	56	39.7	15	30.6
France	46	10.6	17	23.3	21	12.3	6	4.2	2	4.1
Films	146	33.6	26	35.6	59	34.5	48	34.0	13	26.5
Radio-TV	119	27.4	16	21.9	50	29.2	35	24.8	18	36.7
Magazine fiction	169	38.9	31	42.5	62	36.3	58	41.1	18	36.7
Films	146	100.0	26	100.0	59	100.0	48	100.0	13	100.0
English	43	29.4	4	15.4	17	28.8	17	35.4	5	38.5
W. German	80	54.8	13	50.0	32	54.2	29	60.4	6	46.1
French	23	15.7	9	34.6	10	16.9	2	4.2	2	15.4
Radio-TV	119	100.0	16	100.0	50	100.0	35	100.0	18	100.0
English	69	58.0	6	37.5	26	52.0	24	68.6	13	72.2
W. German	30	29.2	8	50.0	16	32.0	7	20.0	5	27.8
French	14	11.8	2	12.5	8	16.0	4	11.4	--	--
Magazine fiction	169	100.0	31	100.0	62	100.0	58	100.0	18	100.0
English	108	63.9	21	67.7	35	56.4	38	65.5	14	77.8
W. German	52	30.8	4	12.9	24	38.7	20	34.5	4	22.2
French	9	5.3	6	19.3	3	4.8	-	--	-	--
EASTERN EUROPE	239	100.0	79	100.0	73	100.0	74	100.0	13	100.0
Poland	78	32.6	14	17.7	26	35.6	34	45.9	4	30.8
Czechoslovakia	117	48.9	49	62.0	33	45.2	31	41.9	4	30.8
Hungary	44	18.4	16	20.2	14	19.2	9	12.2	5	38.5
Films	136	56.9	54	68.3	42	57.5	36	48.6	4	30.8
Radio-TV	58	24.3	8	10.1	15	20.5	29	39.2	6	46.1
Magazine fiction	45	18.8	17	21.5	16	21.9	9	12.2	3	23.1
Films	136	100.0	54	100.0	42	100.0	36	100.0	4	100.0
Polish	20	14.7	4	7.4	7	16.7	8	22.2	1	25.0
Czechoslovak	100	73.5	43	79.6	30	71.4	25	69.4	2	50.0
Hungarian	16	11.8	7	13.0	5	11.9	3	8.3	1	25.0
Radio-TV	58	100.0	8	100.0	15	100.0	29	100.0	6	100.0
Polish	40	69.0	5	62.5	12	80.0	21	72.4	2	33.3
Czechoslovak	9	15.5	2	25.0	1	6.7	5	17.2	1	16.7
Hungarian	9	15.5	1	12.5	2	13.3	3	10.3	3	50.0
Magazine fiction	45	100.0	17	100.0	16	100.0	9	100.0	3	100.0
Polish	18	40.0	5	29.4	7	43.7	5	55.5	1	33.3
Czechoslovak	8	17.8	4	23.5	2	12.5	1	11.1	1	33.3
Hungarian	19	42.2	8	47.1	7	43.7	3	33.3	1	33.3

TABLE 10

NUMBER AND PERCENT OF RELEVANT UNITS IN WHICH PORTRAYAL IS MAINLY ASSOCIATED WITH PRIVATE EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTION; BY COUNTRY AND AREA (U.S. AND WESTERN EUROPE)

Country and medium	Totals (100%)	"Private" within country and medium		Share of medium in all "private" by country	
	N	N	%	N	%
United States (tot.)	358	88	24.6	88	100.0
Films	100	33	33.0	33	37.5
TV drama	131	30	22.9	30	34.1
Magazine fiction	127	25	19.7	25	28.4
Great Britain (tot.)	220	51	23.2	51	100.0
Films	43	14	32.6	14	27.4
Radio-TV drama	69	24	34.8	24	47.1
Magazine fiction	108	13	12.0	13	25.5
W. Germany (tot.)	168	29	17.3	29	100.0
Films	80	20	25.0	20	69.0
Radio-TV drama	36	3	8.3	3	10.3
Magazine fiction	52	6	11.5	6	20.7
France (tot.)	46	10	21.7	10	100.0
Films	23	4	17.4	4	40.0
Radio-TV drama	14	5	35.7	5	50.0
Magazine fiction	9	1	11.1	1	10.0

Area, country, medium	Totals	"Private" within area country, medium		Share of country and medium in all "private" by area	
	N	N	%	N	%
WESTERN EUROPE (tot.)	434	90	20.7	90	100.0
Great Britain	220	51	23.2	51	56.7
W. Germany	168	29	17.3	29	32.2
France	46	10	21.7	10	11.1
Films	146	38	26.0	38	42.2
Radio-TV drama	119	32	26.9	32	35.5
Magazine fiction	169	20	11.8	20	22.2

Appendix III-B THE CHARACTERS

TABLE 1

NUMBER OF TEACHERS, STUDENTS, AND OTHERS (BY SEX, MEDIA, AND EDUCATIONAL LEVEL) IN THE COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS, ALL COUNTRIES AND AREAS

	U.S.	WEST EUR. Total	Great Brit.	West Germ.	France	EAST EUR. Total	Poland	Czechslov.	Hungary	U.S.S.R.[1]
ALL CHARACTERS	1041	1161	628	406	127	554	217	241	96	44
Role and sex										
Teachers (tot.)	329	397	200	141	56	165	43	83	39	15
Males	215	277	140	101	36	124	36	58	30	7
Females	114	120	60	40	20	41	7	25	9	8
Students (tot.)	377	356	168	154	34	279	101	148	30	23
Males	224	210	98	92	20	192	66	105	21	19
Females	153	146	70	62	14	87	35	43	9	4
Others (tot.)	335	408	260	111	37	110	73	10	27	6
Males	208	215	143	55	17	72	46	6	20	4
Females	127	193	117	56	20	38	27	4	7	2
Media and role										
Films (tot.)	316	430	145	216	69	320	80	191	49	44
Teachers	127	152	54	68	30	95	14	61	20	15
Students	82	135	38	82	15	178	41	126	11	23
Others	107	143	53	66	24	47	25	4	18	6
Broadcast drama (tot.)	377	336	204	92	40	167	106	34	27	-
Teachers	104	138	72	48	18	43	20	11	12	-
Students	150	93	57	22	14	71	44	18	9	-
Others	123	106	76	22	8	53	42	5	6	-
Magazine fiction (tot.)	348	395	279	98	18	67	31	16	20	-
Teachers	98	107	74	25	8	27	9	11	7	-
Students	145	128	73	50	5	30	16	4	10	-
Others	105	159	131	23	5	10	6	1	3	-
Level and role										
Primary school (tot.)	116	128	47	46	35	148	28	92	28	11
Teachers	61	89	38	27	24	67	10	44	13	5
Students	42	32	6	18	8	69	15	46	8	5
Others	13	7	3	1	3	12	3	2	7	1
Secondary school (tot.)	333	344	156	145	43	161	61	74	26	24
Teachers	123	176	88	61	27	50	18	20	12	8
Students	193	145	50	79	16	104	39	52	13	15
Others	17	23	18	5	-	7	4	2	1	1
Higher education (tot.)	306	255	153	92	10	111	63	30	18	6
Teachers	128	86	48	37	1	35	12	13	10	2
Students	134	154	92	53	9	97	43	47	7	3
Others	44	15	13	2	-	9	8	-	1	1
Other, several (tot.)	286	434	272	123	39	104	65	15	24	3

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[1] Soviet films are not included in Eastern Europe totals in this or any other tabulation.

TABLE 2

WHO ARE THE "OTHERS"? SOME CATEGORIES (IN PERCENTS), BY COUNTRY AND AREA

	U.S.	WEST EUR. Total	Great Brit.	West Germ.	France	EAST EUR. Total	Po-land	Czech slov.	Hun-gary
Total no. of "others" (100%)	335	408	260	111	37	101	64	10	27
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Community and state officials	5	5	5	3	8	6	5	-	11
Other professionals	17	21	16	29	29	37	37	20	41
Friends, relatives, etc. of teachers or students	78	74	78	68	63	57	58	80	48

TABLE 3

PERCENT OF CHARACTERS FROM DIFFERENT MEDIA IN COUNTRY AND AREA TOTALS

	U.S.	WEST EUR. Total	Great Brit.	West Germ.	France	EAST EUR. Total	Po-land	Czech slov.	Hun-gary
Percent of all characters from:	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Films	30	37	23	53	54	58	37	79	51
Broadcast drama	36	29	33	23	32	30	49	14	28
Magazine fiction	33	34	44	24	14	12	14	7	21
Percent of teachers from:									
Films	39	38	27	48	54	58	33	74	51
Broadcast drama	32	35	36	34	32	26	46	13	31
Magazine fiction	30	27	37	18	14	16	21	13	18
Percent of students from:									
Films	22	38	23	53	44	64	41	85	37
Broadcast drama	40	26	34	14	41	25	43	12	30
Magazine fiction	38	36	43	33	15	11	16	3	33
Percent of others from:									
Films	32	35	20	59	65	43	34	40	67
Broadcast drama	37	26	29	20	22	48	58	50	22
Magazine fiction	31	39	51	21	13	9	8	10	11

TABLE 4

PERCENT OF MALE AND FEMALE CHARACTERS IN DIFFERENT MEDIA AND EDUCATIONAL LEVELS

	U.S.		WEST EUR. Total		Great Brit.		West Germ.		France		EAST EUR. Total		Po-land		Czech slov.		Hun-gary	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
MEDIA																		
Teachers	%		%		%		%		%		%		%		%		%	
All media	65	35	70	30	70	30	72	28	64	36	75	25	84	16	70	30	76	24
Films	69	31	72	28	74	26	72	28	70	30	69	31	86	14	69	31	60	40
Broadcast drama	62	38	79	21	80	20	79	21	72	28	95	5	95	5	90	10	100	-
Magazine fiction	63	37	54	46	57	43	56	44	25	75	63	37	55	45	54	46	85	15
Students																		
All media	59	41	59	41	59	41	60	40	59	41	69	31	65	35	71	29	70	30
Films	66	34	61	39	76	24	56	44	53	47	71	29	68	32	72	28	82	18
Broadcast drama	63	37	71	29	70	30	73	27	71	29	66	34	68	32	61	39	67	33
Magazine fiction	52	48	48	52	42	57	60	40	40	60	56	44	50	50	75	25	60	40
Others																		
All media	62	38	53	47	55	45	49	51	46	54	65	35	63	37	60	40	74	26
Films	58	42	53	47	64	36	47	53	54	46	66	34	56	44	75	25	78	12
Broadcast drama	71	29	61	39	64	36	67	33	62	38	66	34	69	31	60	40	50	50
Magazine fiction	56	44	46	54	46	54	56	44	20	80	60	40	50	50	-	100	100	-
LEVELS																		
Teachers																		
Primary school	26	74	48	52	45	55	63	37	75	25	55	45	60	40	57	43	46	54
Secondary school	66	34	71	29	69	31	67	33	85	15	88	12	83	17	85	15	100	-
Higher education	84	16	94	6	96	4	92	8	100	-	91	9	100	-	85	15	90	10
Students																		
Primary school	71	29	56	44	33	67	72	28	37	63	77	23	80	20	76	24	75	25
Secondary school	56	44	48	52	46	54	46	54	69	31	65	35	77	23	71	29	61	39
Higher education	58	42	69	31	67	33	75	25	55	45	67	33	63	37	68	32	86	14

TABLE 5

PERCENT OF TEACHERS AND STUDENTS FROM DIFFERENT EDUCATIONAL LEVELS IN ALL-MEDIA TOTALS, ALL COUNTRIES AND AREAS

	TEACHERS			STUDENTS		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
	%	%	%	%	%	%
United States						
Primary school	18	7	39	11	13	8
Secondary school	37	38	37	51	49	55
Higher education	39	50	18	36	35	37
Other, several	6	5	6	2	3	-
WESTERN EUROPE						
Primary school	22	16	38	9	9	10
Secondary school	44	45	43	41	33	51
Higher education	22	29	4	43	51	32
Other, several	12	10	15	7	7	7
Great Britain						
Primary school	19	12	35	3	2	6
Secondary school	44	44	44	30	24	39
Higher education	24	33	3	55	63	43
Other, several	13	11	17	12	11	12
West Germany						
Primary school	19	17	25	12	14	8
Secondary school	43	40	50	51	39	69
Higher education	26	34	8	34	44	21
Other, several	12	9	17	3	3	2
France						
Primary school	43	25	75	23	15	36
Secondary school	48	64	20	47	55	36
Higher education	2	3	-	27	25	28
Other, several	7	8	5	3	5	-
EASTERN EUROPE						
Primary school	41	30	73	25	28	18
Secondary school	30	35	15	37	35	41
Higher education	21	26	7	35	34	37
Other, several	8	9	5	3	3	3
Poland						
Primary school	23	17	57	15	18	8
Secondary school	42	42	43	39	35	46
Higher education	28	33	-	42	41	46
Other, several	7	8	-	4	6	-
Czechoslovakia						
Primary school	53	43	76	31	33	26
Secondary school	24	29	12	35	35	35
Higher education	16	19	8	33	31	35
Other, several	7	9	4	2	1	4
Hungary						
Primary school	33	20	78	27	29	22
Secondary school	31	40	-	43	38	56
Higher education	26	30	11	23	29	11
Other, several	10	10	11	7	4	11
U.S.S.R.						
Primary school	33	29	37	22	26	-
Secondary school	53	57	51	65	63	75
Higher education	13	14	12	13	11	25
Other, several	-	-	-	-	-	-

TABLE 6

TEACHERS, STUDENTS, AND OTHERS ASSOCIATED WITH PRIVATE SCHOOLS OR EDUCATION; U.S. AND WESTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES

	United States	Great Brit.	West Germ.	France
Total no. of characters associated with private schools or education	N 203	N 105	N 45	N 20
"Private" as percent of all characters	% 19	% 17	% 11	% 16
"Private" teachers as percent of all teachers	30	26	16	30
"Private" students as percent of all students	20	18	14	9
Percent of all "private":				
Teachers	49	49	51	85
Students	37	30	49	15
Others	14	21	-	-
Totals:	100%	100%	100%	100%
Percent of all "private" teachers in:				
Primary school	12	10	26	35
Secondary school	27	73	44	65
Higher education	59	8	4	-
Other, several	2	9	26	-
Totals:	100%	100%	100%	100%
Percent of all "private" students in:				
Primary school	12	10	18	33
Secondary school	38	48	54	67
Higher education	49	32	23	-
Other, several	1	10	5	-
Totals:	100%	100%	100%	100%

TABLE 7

PERCENT OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS OUT OF ALL CHARACTERS CLASSIFIED AS "TEACHERS" ON ALL TABULATIONS; ALL MEDIA, BY COUNTRY AND AREA

	U.S.	WEST EUR. Total	Great Brit.	West Germ.	France	EAST EUR. Total	Poland	Czech slov.	Hungary
Percent of "teachers" with primarily administrative duties	18	11	11	9	19	7	7	7	5

Appendix IV

THE "WORLD" OF EDUCATION IN MASS FICTION AND DRAMA; DEMOGRAPHIC, THEMATIC, AND DRAMATIC ASPECTS

The findings presented in this section suggest some broad dimensions of overall fictional and dramatic context. The characteristics which emerge are not necessarily those of individual stories. They are features of the story telling process of different mass media systems; and they are indicative of fictional and dramatic raw materials from which the stories themselves are woven in different individual combinations.

Appendix IV-A deals with the setting of the stories in time and place, with the social structure of the fictional "worlds" of teachers, schools, and education, and with certain demographic characteristics of teachers, students, and others who populate these "worlds."

Appendix IV-B presents thematic composition and structure. A "story value" index combines measures of attention and emphasis given to different themes. Theme "story value" rank correlations provide measures of overall similarity of thematic structure between samples.

Appendix IV-C gives composite personality profiles of fictional teachers, students, and others.

Appendix IV-D shows certain aspects of the interaction among teachers, students, and others, presented from the point of view of each role.

Appendix IV-E contains an analysis of dramatic action. It deals with the goals sought by the fictional characters, the barriers and problems encountered, the means used to overcome problems, the extent of violence and illegality committed and suffered, the success or failure of the effort, and the general outcome of the stories.

Appendix IV-A

TIME, PLACE, CLASS, AND CERTAIN DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS

TABLE 1

TIME OF MAJOR ACTION, ALL MEDIA TOTALS (IN PERCENT OF STORIES); ALL COUNTRIES

	U.S.	WEST EUR. Total	Great Brit.	West Germ.	France	EAST EUR. Total	Poland	Czechslov.	Hungary	U.S.S.R.
Present[1]	76	62	67	52	72	59	60	66	36	40
Various times	2	13	15	9	15	4	11	1	--	7
Past	22	25	18	39	13	37	29	33	64	53

[1] Action is presumably contemporary with production or publication.

TABLE 2

HISTORICAL PERIODS AND SELECTED THEMES IN STORIES SET PARTLY OR ONLY IN THE PAST, ALL MEDIA TOTALS, BY AREA

	United States	Western Europe	Eastern Europe
	% of stories	% of stories	% of stories[1]
Before 1800	3	2	-
1800 - 1900	43	24	22
Mid-1800's; U.S. Civil War; European nationalist revolutions	(5)	(7)	(11)
1900 - 1939	35	54	32
World War I theme	(-)	(4)	(-)
Depression theme	(5)	(-)	(-)
Spanish civil war	(-)	(2)	(-)
Rise of fascism	(-)	(6)	(8)
Russian revolution	(-)	(-)	(5)
World War II period	13	15	19
Post-World War II	6	7	27
Liberation from fascism, reconstruction	(-)	(3)	(16)
Anti-communism	(5)	(-)	(-)
Korean war	(-)	(2)	(-)

[1] Figures not in parentheses add up to 100% of stories set at various times and in the past, as indicated on Table 1 above.

TABLE 3

SETTING OF MAJOR ACTION, ALL MEDIA; PERCENT OF SETTINGS, ALL COUNTRIES AND AREAS

	U.S.	WEST EUR. Total	Great Brit.	West Germ.	France	EAST EUR. Total	Po-land	Czech slov.	Hun-gary	U.S.S.R.
Total no. of settings recorded	372	551	274	230	47	279	95	117	52	15
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Metropolitan area, big city	24	34	37	32	28	39	37	40	42	13
Provincial center, small town	40	19	18	16	40	21	22	17	23	53
Village, farm	10	14	15	11	26	16	7	25	21	33
Other country (any setting)	5	20	18	26	2	14	19	9	11	-
Unidentified, other	21	13	12	15	4	9	15	8	2	-

TABLE 4

SETTING OF MAJOR ACTION BY REGION, ALL MEDIA; UNITED STATES

	All settings	Big city, metrop.	Provincial, small town	Village, farm
Total no. of settings recorded	372	88	148	38
	%	%	%	%
East	11	30	9	3
West	8	14	9	16
Midwest and South	4	6	6	3
Unknown, unidentified	50	49	76	79

TABLE 5

CLASS CHARACTER OF SETTING OF MAJOR ACTION, ALL MEDIA; PERCENT OF STORIES, ALL COUNTRIES AND AREAS

	U.S.	WEST EUR. Total	Great Brit.	West Germ.	France	EAST EUR. Total	Poland	Czech slov.	Hungary	U.S.S.R.
Upper	10	14	11	15	4	3	3	2	9	7
Middle	67	58	60	57	50	62	55	77	34	47
Lower	8	9	10	4	24	20	19	13	39	33
Mixed, unclear	15	19	19	24	22	15	23	8	18	13

TABLE 6

CLASS CHARACTER OF SETTING OF MAJOR ACTION; PERCENT OF STORIES IN EACH MEDIUM, BY AREA

	United States			Western Europe			Eastern Europe		
Media[1]...	Film	Bdct.	Mag.	Film	Bdct.	Mag	Film	Bdct.	Mag.
Upper	15	11	6	14	10	17	2	5	4
Middle	56	75	68	47	61	65	74	57	31
Lower	7	5	13	10	11	8	17	12	38
Mixed, unclear	22	9	13	29	18	10	7	26	27

[1] Film, broadcast drama, magazine fiction.

TABLE 7

CLASS CHARACTER OF SETTING OF MAJOR ACTION; PERCENT OF STORIES BY LEVEL AND TYPE OF EDUCATION ASSOCIATED WITH THE PORTRAYALS, BY AREA

	United States			Western Europe			Eastern Europe		
Level of educ.[1]...	Pr.	Se.	H.,o.	Pr.	Se.	H.,o.	Pr.	Se.	H.,o.
Upper	8	12	11	8	9	15	3	3	5
Middle	62	71	66	45	64	57	52	69	65
Lower	18	5	7	23	5	7	30	16	13
Mixed, unclear	12	12	16	24	22	21	15	12	17

Private schools and education	United States All levels	Western Europe All levels
Upper	20	22
Middle	55	46
Lower	7	2
Mixed, unclear	18	30

[1] Primary school, Secondary school, Higher education and other.

TABLE 8

SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS (CLASS) OF CHARACTERS, ALL MEDIA; ALL COUNTRIES AND AREAS[1]

	U.S.	WEST EUR. Total	Great Brit.	West Germ.	France	EAST EUR. Total	Poland	Czechslov.	Hungary	U.S.S.R.
Percent of all characters										
Upper	13	13	11	16	11	6	6	5	9	2
Middle	69	69	70	70	56	63	51	78	54	64
Lower	9	8	10	7	26	18	20	13	30	14
Other[2]	9	10	9	7	7	13	23	4	7	20
Percent of teachers										
Upper	10	6	6	6	7	7	2	10	5	2
Middle	79	81	82	84	68	76	77	76	74	87
Lower	2	7	3	6	23	7	-	10	10	-
Other[2]	9	6	9	4	2	10	21	4	11	11
Percent of students										
Upper	12	14	14	16	12	4	6	3	7	-
Middle	67	57	62	68	44	60	41	80	33	56
Lower	13	15	17	9	35	23	26	14	53	17
Other[2]	8	14	7	7	9	13	27	3	7	27
Percent of others										
Upper	18	18	14	29	16	12	10	10	18	-
Middle	63	61	66	56	49	51	49	70	48	33
Lower	11	11	12	7	22	24	25	-	33	33
Other[2]	8	10	8	8	13	13	16	20	-	34

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[1] Analysts were instructed to record actual status of character for the most part. Indeces of class included family background, income, power, prestige, type of work.

[2] "Other" included persons outside of normal class structure such as might be those in illegal occupations, as well as persons whose class status could not be judged because of lack of explicit evidence.

TABLE 9

SOCIAL MOBILITY OF TEACHERS, STUDENTS, AND OTHERS, BY AREA

	UNITED STATES			WESTERN EUROPE			EASTERN EUROPE		
	% of All	% of Males	% of Fem.	% of All	% of Males	% of Fem.	% of All	% of Males	% of Fem.
Teachers									
Total mobility	13.7	16.3	8.7	16.3	15.6	18.3	18.2	21.8	7.3
Upward	9.7	11.6	6.1	11.8	11.6	12.5	12.1	14.5	4.9
Downward	4.0	4.7	2.6	4.5	4.0	5.8	6.1	7.3	2.4
Ratio up/down	2.4/1	2.5/1	2.3/1	2.6/1	2.9/1	2.1/1	2.0/1	2.0/1	2.0/1
Students									
Total mobility	17.2	22.8	9.1	24.7	27.6	20.5	23.7	22.4	26.4
Upward	15.1	21.0	6.5	19.1	20.5	17.1	20.1	19.3	21.8
Downward	2.1	1.8	2.6	5.6	7.1	3.4	3.6	3.1	4.6
Ratio up/down	7.2/1	11.7/1	2.5/1	3.4/1	2.9/1	5.0/1	5.6/1	6.2/1	4.7/1
Others									
Total mobility	16.1	12.5	22.0	24.3	20.0	29.1	23.9	22.6	26.3
Upward	12.2	8.7	18.1	14.7	11.2	18.7	8.3	8.5	7.9
Downward	3.9	3.8	3.9	9.6	8.8	10.4	15.6	14.1	18.4
Ratio up/down	3.1/1	2.3/1	4.6/1	1.5/1	1.3/1	1.8/1	1/1.9	1/1.7	1/2.3

TABLE 10

SOCIAL MOBILITY OF TEACHERS, ALL MEDIA; BY COUNTRY

	West Germany	France	Poland	Czecho-slovakia	Hun-gary
Teachers	Percent of characters				
Total mobility	14.1	42.9	18.6	19.3	15.4
Upward	11.3	25.0	9.3	14.5	10.3
Downward	2.8	17.9	9.3	4.8	5.1
Ratio up/down	4.0/1	1.4/1	1.0/1	3.0/1	2.0/1
Male teachers					
Total mobility	13.9	41.7	22.2	22.4	20.0
Upward	9.9	27.8	11.1	17.2	13.3
Downward	4.0	13.9	11.1	5.2	6.7
Ratio up/down	2.5/1	2.0/1	1.0/1	3.3/1	2.0/1
Female teachers					
Total mobility	15.0	45.0	-	12.0	-
Upward	15.0	20.0	-	8.0	-
Downward	-	25.0	-	4.0	-
Ratio up/down	-	.8/2	-	2.0/1	-

TABLE 11
SOCIAL MOBILITY OF TEACHERS, STUDENTS, AND OTHERS, ALL MEDIA; GREAT BRITAIN

	TEACHERS			STUDENTS			OTHERS		
	% of All	% of Males	% of Fem.	% of All	% of Males	% of Fem.	% of All	% of Males	% of Fem.
Total mobility	10.4	9.9	11.5	30.3	34.4	24.6	18.8	15.4	23.1
Upward	8.4	8.5	8.2	23.2	25.3	20.3	11.9	7.7	17.1
Downward	2.0	1.4	3.3	7.1	9.1	4.3	6.9	7.7	6.0
Ratio up/down	4.2/1	6.1/1	2.5/1	3.3/1	2.8/1	4.7/1	1.7/1	1.0/1	2.9/1

TABLE 12
A AGE OF TEACHERS, STUDENTS, OTHERS, ALL MEDIA; BY AREA

	UNITED STATES			WESTERN EUROPE			EASTERN EUROPE		
	% of All	% of Males	% of Fem.	% of All	% of Males	% of Fem.	% of All	% of Males	% of Fem.
Teachers									
Young adults	47	39	62	44	37	61	35	23	68
Middle age	30	34	25	30	33	23	26	28	20
Past middle age	15	19	7	17	19	10	20	26	3
Old age	2	2	1	5	7	3	13	17	2
Several, not clear	6	6	5	4	4	3	6	6	7
Students									
School-college age	91	91	90	88	85	93	92	92	91
Past college age	5	6	3	8	12	3	4	5	3
Several, not clear	4	3	7	4	3	4	4	3	6
Others									
Children and youth	2	3	2	3	3	3	8	15	10
Young adults	49	40	64	51	42	65	44	32	50
Middle age	35	42	23	27	30	22	30	28	34
Past middle age	9	10	8	11	16	5	8	10	5
Old age	2	2	1	3	4	1	5	8	-
Several, not clear	3	3	2	5	5	4	5	7	1

TABLE 13
AGE OF TEACHERS, ALL MEDIA; BY COUNTRY

	West Germany	France	Poland	Czecho-slovakia	Hun-gary	U.S.S.R.
Teachers	%	%	%	%	%	%
Young adults	29	51	26	40	34	80
Middle age	30	26	31	22	34	-
Past middle age	19	16	18	19	22	-
Old age	16	5	18	14	6	-
Several, not clear	6	2	5	5	3	20

TABLE 14

AGE OF TEACHERS, STUDENTS, AND OTHERS, ALL MEDIA; GREAT BRITAIN

	% of All	% of Males	% of Fem.
Teachers			
Young adults	53	45	72
Middle age	29	35	15
Past middle age	15	17	10
Old age	*	1	-
Several, not clear	3	2	3
Students			
School-college age	80	74	89
Past college age	16	22	7
Several, not clear	4	4	3
Others			
Children and youth	2	2	2
Young adults	59	50	71
Middle age	22	26	18
Past middle age	10	14	4
Old age	2	2	2
Several, not clear	5	6	3

TABLE 15

MARITAL STATUS OF TEACHERS, STUDENTS, AND OTHERS, ALL MEDIA; BY AREA

	UNITED STATES			WESTERN EUROPE			EASTERN EUROPE		
	% of All	% of Males	% of Fem.	% of All	% of Males	% of Fem.	% of All	% of Males	% of Fem.
Teachers									
Unmarried[1] young adult	19	15	26	19	16	26	23	14	51
Unmarried middle-aged, older	15	14	18	22	19	28	29	31	22
Marries in story[2]	25	21	32	22	16	37	9	8	10
Married, had been married[3]	26	30	18	29	40	5	30	36	10
Not known	15	20	6	9	11	4	10	11	7
Students (of marriageable age[4])									
Unmarried[1] young adult	56	58	53	45	53	34	86	88	81
Unmarried middle-aged, older	4	3	6	3	3	2	2	2	3
Marries in story[2]	29	28	32	46	36	59	7	4	13
Married, had been married[3]	8	8	8	6	7	5	5	6	3
Not known	3	4	1	1	2	-	1	1	-
Others									
Unmarried[1] young adult	15	14	17	11	8	13	34	35	32
Unmarried middle-aged, older	7	10	3	14	26	3	11	15	3
Marries in story[2]	25	24	28	32	28	36	13	11	16
Married, had been married[3]	43	38	50	41	36	41	38	32	50
Not known	10	14	2	2	1	3	3	4	-

See footnotes, page IV-A-8.

TABLE 16

PERCENT OF TEACHERS, STUDENTS, AND OTHERS WHO MARRY IN FILMS, BROADCAST DRAMA, AND MAGAZINE FICTION, BY AREA

	United States			Western Europe			Eastern Europe		
	Film	Bdct.	Mag.	Film	Bdct.	Mag.	Film	Bdct.	Mag.
Teachers	36	15	19	22	9	38	7	9	11
Students (of marriage-able age[4])	31	19	39	48	18	43	2	20	-
Others	40	13	23	28	8	36	8	19	10

TABLE 17

MARITAL STATUS OF TEACHERS, STUDENTS, AND OTHERS, ALL MEDIA; GREAT BRITAIN

	TEACHERS			STUDENTS[4]			OTHERS		
	% of All	% of Males	% of Fem.	% of All	% of Males	% of Fem.	% of All	% of Males	% of Fem.
Unmarried[1] young adult	25	21	34	56	57	54	28	26	30
Unmarried middle-aged, older	21	21	21	4	7	-	8	11	4
Marries in story[2]	17	11	33	34	28	43	23	21	26
Married, had been married[3]	29	37	8	5	7	2	34	30	38
Not known	8	10	3	2	3	2	8	12	3

TABLE 18

MARITAL STATUS OF TEACHERS, ALL MEDIA; BY COUNTRY

	West Germany	France	Poland	Czecho-slovakia	Hun-gary	U.S.S.R.
Teachers	%	%	%	%	%	%
Unmarried[1] young adults	10	18	23	22	26	47
Unmarried middle-aged, older	23	18	46	23	26	40
Marries in story[2]	26	3	3	11	13	-
Married, had been married[3]	29	30	23	35	21	13
Not known	12	7	5	9	15	-

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[1] "Unmarried" was defined as a person who had never been married, was unmarried during the action of the story, and gave no indication of impending marriage at the end of the story.

[2] Including definite indication of impending marriage at the end of story.

[3] Including divorced, widowed, re-married.

[4] Excluding children and adolescents.

TABLE 19

INJURY, ILLNESS, PHYSICAL HANDICAPS, ALL MEDIA; PERCENT OF ALL CHARACTERS, TEACHERS, STUDENTS, AND OTHERS, BY COUNTRY AND AREA

	U.S.	WEST EUR. Total	Great Brit.	West Germ.	France	EAST EUR. Total	Poland	Czech slov.	Hungary
All characters	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Injury	8	4	3	4	4	4	6	1	5
Physical illness	4	4	5	3	6	5	8	3	4
Mental illness	3	4	5	2	12	2	4	-	1
Bodily handicap, abnormality	1	2	2	1	4	2	2	1	1
Teachers									
Injury	8	3	2	4	4	1	-	-	3
Physical illness	4	6	6	6	11	8	9	7	8
Mental illness	2	3	2	-	11	2	7	-	-
Bodily handicap, abnormality	1	2	2	1	5	1	2	1	-
Students									
Injury	10	3	3	3	3	5	9	2	3
Physical illness	2	2	4	1	3	3	6	1	3
Mental illness	2	7	8	4	18	1	4	-	-
Bodily handicap, abnormality	1	1	2	1	3	1	2	1	-
Others									
Injury	6	5	5	5	5	6	6	-	11
Physical illness	5	4	5	3	3	6	10	-	-
Mental illness	5	4	4	2	8	2	1	-	4
Bodily handicap, abnormality	2	1	2	-	3	3	3	-	4

NOTE: Totals do not necessarily add up to the percent of persons suffering any ailment because the same characters may suffer more than one.

Appendix IV-B

THEMATIC COMPOSITION AND STRUCTURE

Various samples of U.S. data, all-media samples of all areas and countries, and film samples of all countries were subjected to theme analysis. The purpose of this analysis was the development of measures of thematic composition and structure.

The analysis

The thematic analysis consisted of a checklist-type count of the significant occurrence of one or more out of a list of 22 themes. (For themes and instructions to analysts, see Appendix VI, Form B, Question 27.) The general rule of "significance" was "not likely to be overlooked by the average reader or viewer, . . . mentioned in a summary or review of the material, and . . . sufficiently delineated to make analysis possible."

Analysts could mark the one or two *major* themes in each story, and as many other themes as played significant parts in each story. (One theme could be coded only once in a story -- either as "major" or as "significant but secondary" -- regardless of the number of times it might have come up within the story.)

On the basis of the theme analysis, measures of thematic composition and structure were developed. Again, it should be pointed out that these measures were not designed to reproduce characteristics of individual stories. The purpose of this analysis was to find ways of comparing thematic "raw materials" from which the dramatic and fictional "worlds" of the total samples were constructed. These measures should be regarded as rough indications of *overall subject complexity, frequency, priority, and rank-order structure*.

Measures of thematic composition

Measures of thematic *composition* used in this series of tabulations are the following:

Attention (Attn.). The frequency with which themes (regardless of their relative importance) were "attended to" in the fictional and dramatic "worlds" of the various samples is the measure of "attention." This measure is the number of stories in each sample in which a certain theme was a major or significant plot element. It is expressed in the tables as the percent of all ~~stories~~ themes and as the rank of "attention" frequencies in the sample.

Emphasis (Em.). The one or two *major themes* in each story were assigned a value of 2 and all other significant themes a value of 1 for the purpose of computing a measure of "emphasis." This measure is a mean of values assigned to each major or significant occurrence of a theme in the samples. It can range from a mean score of 1.00 (whenever the theme occurred in a story, it was a significant but secondary element) to a mean score of 2.00 (each time the theme occurred in a story it was *the* major or one of the *two* most important elements). Most mean scores are, of course, between these two extremes. They provide an indication of the extent to which the various themes and aspects of life were given "major theme" emphasis regardless of frequency of occurrence in the samples. The higher the mean, the greater the emphasis. In addition to the mean scores, the ranks of the mean scores (from high to low emphasis) are also given in the tabulations.

Story value (SV). A summary index of both attention and emphasis was obtained through multiplying the attention percent by the emphasis mean. For example, if a theme occurred in 10.0 percent of the stories, but none used it as a major plot element (emphasis score = 1.00), its story value index would be 10.0 x 1.00 = 10.0, unchanged, same as its attention percent. If another theme also occurred 10.0 percent of the stories but always as a major theme, its story value index would be 10.0 x 2.00 = 20.0, double its attention percent. Or, an actual example: the highest ranking theme in the U.S. all-media sample, "home, family, marriage," (see Table 6), attention percent 16.5 multiplied by emphasis mean 1.51 yields a story value index of 24.9.

In addition to the story value index, story value ranks (from highest to lowest) are also given in the tabulations. Whenever story values were computed, themes are listed in order of story value ranks.

A measure of thematic structure

A limited and specialized measure of thematic "structure" was provided by theme story value rank order correlations. The measure is a relative one in that it only indicates the structure of thematic priorities in a sample in relation to another sample. It is limited in that it deals with the overall structure of priorities rather than with story value differences of individual themes. And it is specialized in that its primary purpose is to indicate the possibility of correlation between two variables (such as nationality of the sample, time or source of the data, etc.) rather than the size of the correlation (unless the coefficient happens to be very large). For that reason, no correlation lower than .65 is given.

The Tables

Table 1 lists all samples subjected to theme analysis, the number of units (stories) in each sample, the total number of themes (major and secondary) recorded in each sample, and the average number of themes per unit (story) in each sample. Differences in this last figure may be attributed (1) to differences in the thematic complexity of the materials analyzed, (2) to differences in the source and media analyzed (print vs. projected, screened vs. analyzed from reviews and summaries), and (3) to the diligence of the analysts. (Rank correlations between various U.S. film samples and between film and all-media samples in all countries indicate marked similarities of thematic structure within countries regardless of differences.)

Table 2 gives the following information: Column 1 lists themes by attention rank in the 100-film U.S. sample. Column 2 gives theme attention ranks and percents for all films produced during the same time period (1950-1960) and analyzed from Variety and other reviews, but excluding films relevant to teachers, schools, and education. Columns 3, 4, and 5 deal with relevant films selected for this study but with the following differences: Column 3 gives theme attention ranks and percent for all (160) relevant films produced 1950-1960 and analyzed from reviews; Column 4 gives the same information for 301 relevant films produced 1931-50; and Column 5 gives information about 21 relevant films produced before 1950 and shown on television during the study period. The comparisons which can be made involve, therefore (aside from the number of films) the variables of relevance to teachers, schools, etc., time of production (before or after 1950), source of analysis (reviews, screenings, TV), and the availability for screening (100 films out of the total of 160 relevant films produced 1950-1960). Attention was the only measure used in this Table because other measures were not recorded for some of the samples.

Table 3 gives rank order correlations between pairs of U.S. film samples listed in Table 2.

Table 4 lists all themes by U.S. all-media story value ranks, and corresponding ranks and measures of thematic composition by film, television, and magazine samples. Table 4, then, is a comparison of thematic composition between different media in the U.S. sample.

Table 5 gives rank correlations of theme story values between pairs of media samples. Thus it provides an indication of similarity of overall thematic structure between media samples whose thematic composition is compared in Table 4.

Table 6 lists themes by U.S. all-media story value ranks, and gives corresponding ranks and measures of thematic composition for country and area all-media samples. This Table occupies five pages.

Figure 1 is a corregram based on the rank correlations given in Table 7. (Corregram is a name given to a diagram representing certain relationships obtained from correlations.)

Table 7 contains rank correlations of story values between countries and areas (+.65 and above). It also gives rank correlations indicating that similarity of overall thematic structure between film samples and all-media samples in each country is high regardless of the percent of films in the all-media samples.

Tables 8-13 present information about the thematic compositions of the all-media samples and the film samples in each country. Themes are listed in order of all-media story value ranks. Story value, attention, and emphasis ranks and measures are given for both samples in each country.

TABLE 1

NUMBER OF THEMES RECORDED AND AVERAGE NUMBER OF THEMES PER UNIT IN ALL MEDIA SAMPLES

Samples	No. of units	No. of themes	Ave. no of themes per unit
United States all-media total	358	1664	4.6
Films (screened)	100	563	5.6
Television drama	131	523	4.0
Magazine fiction	127	578	4.5
Films 1950-60 (reviewed)[1]	160	687	4.3
Films 1931-50 (reviewed)[1]	301	1,029	3.4
Pre-1950 films shown on TV	21	120	5.7
Films not involving teachers, schools, education, 1950-60 (reviewed)[1]	2,957	15,165	5.1
WESTERN EUROPE all-media total	434	2,302	5.3
Great Britain, all-media total	220	1,054	4.8
Films only	43	238	5.5
West Germany, all-media total	168	961	5.7
Films only	80	452	5.6
France, all-media total	46	287	6.2
Films only	23	151	6.6
EASTERN EUROPE all-media total	239	1,303	5.4
Poland, all-media total	78	281	3.6
Films only	20	114	5.7
Czechoslovakia, all-media total	117	832	7.1
Films only	100	750	7.5
Hungary, all-media total	44	190	4.3
Films only	16	62	3.9

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[1] Theme analysis was based on reviews, summaries, and synopses rather than on screening of films. Table 3 provides rank-order correlation between using reviews, etc. and screenings as the basis of theme analysis.

TABLE 2

THEMES, U.S. FILMS: COMPARISONS OF ATTENTION IN DIFFERENT SAMPLES AND TIME PERIODS

1 Attention Rank in 100-film sample (screened)		2 Non relevant 1950-60 (N=2957)		3 All relevant 1950-60 (N=160)		4 All relevant 1931-50 (N=301)		5 Relevant pre-1950 shown on TV (N=21)	
		Rank	%	Rank	%	Rank	%	Rank	%
1	Love, sex	1.5	12.9	2	17.5	1	19.3	1	15.9
2	Home, family, marriage	3	10.3	1	17.8	2	17.1	2	11.9
3	Violence, war	1.5	12.9	3	11.1	4	7.8	4	7.1
4	Public affairs, law enforcement	4	9.5	7	4.9	7	5.1	6	5.6
5	Financial success, hardship	8	4.0	8	4.4	5	6.3	7.5	4.8
6	Entertainment, mass media, sports	7	4.8	4.5	6.8	3	12.8	3	11.1
7	Science, scientists, technology	11.5	2.5	6	5.2	10	3.2	7.5	4.8
9	Other lands and people; minorities	5.5	9.2	4.5	6.8	8	5.0	12	3.2
9	Crime, corruption	5.5	9.2	9	4.1	6	5.9	5	6.3
9	Literature, arts, humanities	21	.6	18.5	1.0	11	2.9	9.5	4.0
11	Injury, illness, medicine	11.5	2.5	12	2.5	12.5	2.1	15.5	2.4
12	Nature, animals, the elements	9	3.7	13	2.3	17	.9	9.5	4.0
13	Armed forces	10	3.6	10	3.5	9	3.7	15.5	2.4
14	Mental illness	14	2.3	14	2.2	18	.6	21	.8
15	Business, industry, labor	13	2.4	11	2.6	12.5	2.1	12	3.2
16	Religion, clergy	15.5	1.9	17	1.3	21	.3	15.5	2.4
17.5	Drunkenness, alcoholism, narcotics	17	1.8	15.5	2.0	15.5	1.1	12	3.2
17.5	Accidents, catastrophies	18.5	1.5	18.5	1.0	14	1.6	19	1.6
19	Domestic activity, personal grooming	20	.8	20	.6	19	.5	15.5	2.4
20	Historical events, themes	15.5	1.9	21	.3	20	.4	19	1.6
21	Supernatural, mysticism	18.5	1.5	15.5	2.0	15.5	1.1	19	1.6

TABLE 3

RANK CORRELATIONS OF THEME FREQUENCIES (ATTENTION) BETWEEN VARIOUS U.S. FILM SAMPLES

	Description of film sample[1]				Description of film sample[1]				Rank correlation
	Time of production	Relevant content[2]	Source of analysis[3]	No. of films	Time of production	Relevant content[2]	Source of analysis[3]	No. of films	
(A)	1950-1960	*NOT involving teachers, schools*	Reviews	2,957	1950-1960	*Involving teachers, schools*,etc.	Reviews	160	.91
(B)	*1931-1950*	Relevant	Reviews	301	*1950-1960*	Relevant	Reviews	160	.88
(C)	Pre-1950	Relevant	*Viewed on television*	21	1931-1950	Relevant	*Reviews*	301	.88
(D)	1950-1960	Relevant	*Reviews*	160	1950-1960	Relevant	*Screened*	100	.85

[1] The variables (aside from the number of films) on which the film samples differed are underlined in each comparison.

[2] "Relevant content" means whether the sample was selected on the basis of the criteria of portrayal of teachers, schools, education used in this study ("relevant") or *includes all except "relevant"* films (in comparison A).

[3] "Source of analysis" means whether themes were recorded on the basis of reading reviews, summaries, and synopses of films ("reviewed") or on the basis of screening or viewing.

NOTES: Comparison (A) shows the similarity of overall thematic structure between all films produced 1950-1960 (and reviewed in *Variety*) but *excluding* those which portray teachers, schools, and education, and those which did portray these relevant elements as defined in this study.

Comparison (B) is a *time* comparison between two relevant samples.

Comparison (C) is a comparison between 21 relevant films shown on TV and 301 relevant films produced during (probably toward the latter part of) the same time period, and analyzed from *Variety* and other reviews and summaries.

Comparison (D) is between all 160 relevant films produced 1950-1960 analyzed from *Variety* and other reviews, and the 100 films available for screening and used *in all* international comparisons as a part of the U.S. all-media sample.

TABLE 4

THEME RANKINGS AND MEASURES; MEDIA COMPARISONS IN U.S. SAMPLE
(IN ORDER OF ALL-MEDIA RANKS)

All-media SV rank			FILMS			TELEVISION			MAGAZINES		
			SV Ind.	Attn. %	Em. Mean	SV Ind.	Attn. %	Em. Mean	SV Ind.	Attn. %	Em. Mean
1	Home, family, marriage	Rank	2	2	2.5	1	1	3	1	1	4
		Meas.	16.3	11.3	1.44	29.9	20.1	1.49	28.8	18.2	1.58
2	Love, sex	Rank	1	1	1	2	2	4	2	2	1
		Meas.	21.3	14.3	1.49	19.0	12.9	1.47	21.0	13.0	1.61
3	Entertainment, mass media, sports	Rank	4	6	7	3	3	8.5	3	3	5
		Meas.	9.0	6.7	1.34	12.7	10.0	1.27	8.6	6.6	1.31
4	Violence, war	Rank	3	3	8	4	5	6	9	9	8
		Meas.	10.5	7.9	1.33	8.8	6.4	1.38	6.0	4.7	1.27
5	Financial success, hardship	Rank	6	5	14	5	4	11	4	4	11.5
		Meas.	8.4	7.1	1.18	8.1	6.6	1.23	7.7	6.4	1.21
6	Public affairs, law enforcement	Rank	5	4	12	6	6	13	8	8	11.5
		Meas.	8.8	7.2	1.22	6.4	5.3	1.21	6.3	5.2	1.21
7	Injury, illness, medicine	Rank	14	11	16	13	13	8.5	5.5	5	15.5
		Meas.	3.9	3.5	1.10	3.6	2.8	1.27	7.1	6.2	1.14
8	Literature, arts, humanities	Rank	8	9	10	8	7.5	16	7	6	17
		Meas.	4.8	3.7	1.29	5.1	4.5	1.13	6.7	5.9	1.13
9.5	Crime, corruption	Rank	12.5	9	17.5	7	7.5	5	11	11.5	6.5
		Meas.	4.0	3.7	1.09	6.3	4.5	1.40	5.4	4.2	1.28
9.5	Science, scientists, technology	Rank	7	7	5.5	9	9.5	14	14	14	15.5
		Meas.	8.1	6.0	1.35	4.8	4.0	1.20	2.7	2.4	1.14
11	Other lands and people; minorities	Rank	10	9	15	10	11	12	10	10	6.5
		Meas.	4.2	3.7	1.14	4.1	3.4	1.22	5.5	4.3	1.28
12	Domestic activity, personal grooming	Rank	21	19	20.5	11	9.5	19.5	5.5	7	9.5
		Meas.	2.0	2.0	1.00	4.0	4.0	1.00	7.1	5.7	1.25
13	Nature, animals, the elements	Rank	9	12	9	14	14	17	12	13	13
		Meas.	4.4	3.3	1.32	2.8	2.5	1.11	4.7	4.0	1.17
14	Business, industry, labor	Rank	16.5	15	20.5	12	12	10	13	11.5	20.5
		Meas.	2.6	2.6	1.00	3.8	3.0	1.26	4.2	4.2	1.00
15	Armed forces	Rank	11	13	5.5	20.5	20.5	15	16	16	19
		Meas.	4.1	3.0	1.35	1.3	1.1	1.17	1.7	1.7	1.01
16.5	Drunkenness, alcoholism, narcotics	Rank	19	17.5	19	17	15	19.5	15	15	14
		Meas.	2.3	2.1	1.08	1.9	1.9	1.00	2.4	2.1	1.16

(Continued)

TABLE 4 (continued)

			FILMS			TELEVISION			MAGAZINES		
All-media SV rank			SV Ind.	Attn. %	Em. Mean	SV Ind.	Attn. %	Em. Mean	SV Ind.	Attn. %	Em. Mean
16.5	Religion, clergy	Rank	15	16	13	15	17	2	19.5	19.5	2.5
		Meas.	2.9	2.4	1.21	2.3	1.5	1.50	1.4	.9	1.60
18.5	Mental illness	Rank	12.5	14	2.5	20.5	18.5	19.5	21	21	9.5
		Meas.	4.0	2.8	1.44	1.3	1.3	1.00	.9	.7	1.25
18.5	Supernatural, mysticism	Rank	18	21	4	16	20.5	1	19.5	19.5	2.5
		Meas.	2.4	1.7	1.40	2.2	1.1	2.00	1.4	.9	1.60
20	Accidents, catastrophies	Rank	16.5	17.5	11	18.5	16	19.5	17.5	18	18
		Meas.	2.6	2.1	1.25	1.7	1.7	1.00	1.6	1.4	1.12
21	Historical events, themes	Rank	20	20	17.5	18.5	18.5	7	17.5	17	20.5
		Meas.	2.1	1.9	1.09	1.7	1.3	1.33	1.6	1.6	1.00

TABLE 5

RANK CORRELATIONS OF THEME STORY VALUES BETWEEN U.S. MEDIA SAMPLES

Correlation of:	
Films (N-100) with television drama (N-131)	.77
Films (N-100) with magazine fiction (N-127)	.62
Television drama (N-131) with magazine fiction (N-127)	.80

TABLE 6

THEME RANKINGS AND MEASURES, ALL MEDIA; BY COUNTRY AND AREA (IN ORDER OF U.S. STORY VALUE RANKS)

		U.S.	WEST EUR. Total	Great Brit.	West Germ.	France	EAST EUR. Total	Po-land	Czech slov.	Hun-gary
Home, family, marriage										
Story value	Rank	1	2	2	2	2	1	1	2	1
	Index	24.9	18.2	20.3	17.0	15.7	15.6	21.2	13.8	15.8
Attention	Rank	1	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1
	Percent	16.5	12.8	13.6	13.0	9.8	11.9	13.5	11.2	13.2
Emphasis	Rank	3	4	4	5	3	9	3	11.5	12
	Mean	1.51	1.42	1.49	1.31	1.60	1.31	1.57	1.23	1.20
Love, sex										
Story value	Rank	2	1	1	1	1	2	2	1	4.5
	Index	20.5	23.3	23.2	25.0	18.1	14.2	17.7	14.4	8.4
Attention	Rank	2	1	1	1	1	2	2	4	6.5
	Percent	13.5	14.2	14.4	14.7	11.8	9.9	12.1	10.0	6.3
Emphasis	Rank	2	1	1	1	5	3.5	11	2	4.5
	Mean	1.52	1.64	1.61	1.70	1.53	1.43	1.46	1.44	1.33
Entertainment, sports, mass media										
Story value	Rank	3	3.5	5	3	9.5	3	5	3	17
	Index	10.1	8.5	7.1	10.6	6.6	10.6	10.7	12.4	2.6
Attention	Rank	3	3	4.5	3	7	3	5	3	17.5
	Percent	7.8	7.3	6.0	9.4	5.6	8.7	7.5	10.6	2.1
Emphasis	Rank	7.5	16	15	15	16	15.5	13.5	14	10
	Mean	1.30	1.16	1.19	1.13	1.18	1.22	1.42	1.17	1.24
Violence, war										
Story value	Rank	4	3.5	4	7	3	9	4	13	3
	Index	8.5	8.5	8.8	6.9	12.9	6.6	12.8	3.6	10.0
Attention	Rank	5	7	4.5	8	3	10	4	13	3
	Percent	6.4	5.8	6.0	4.9	8.4	4.6	8.2	2.6	7.9
Emphasis	Rank	6	3	5	3	4	3.5	4	3	7
	Mean	1.33	1.46	1.47	1.40	1.54	1.43	1.56	1.40	1.26
Financial success, hardship										
Story value	Rank	5	5	3	6	7	14	10	17.5	8
	Index	8.0	8.4	9.6	7.5	7.0	3.4	5.5	1.9	6.8
Attention	Rank	4	4	3	6	9.5	13.5	10.5	17	6.5
	Percent	6.7	6.6	7.3	6.4	4.9	2.9	3.9	1.8	6.3
Emphasis	Rank	15	6	6	11.5	8.5	19	13.5	20	16
	Mean	1.20	1.27	1.32	1.17	1.42	1.17	1.42	1.06	1.08

(Continued)

TABLE 6 (continued)

		U.S.	WEST EUR. Total	Great Brit.	West Germ.	France	EAST EUR. Total	Po-land	Czech slov.	Hun-gary
Public affairs, law enforcement										
Story value	Rank	6	10	6	12.5	9.5	5	9	6	4.5
	Index	7.3	5.2	6.8	3.2	6.6	8.5	6.4	9.3	8.4
Attention	Rank	6	9	6	13	11	5	7.5	5	4
	Percent	6.0	4.3	5.8	2.7	4.5	7.4	5.3	8.3	6.8
Emphasis	Rank	13	11.5	16	8.5	6	20	19	18	11
	Mean	1.21	1.22	1.18	1.19	1.46	1.15	1.20	1.12	1.23
Injury, illness, medicine										
Story value	Rank	7	8	9	9	7	13	7	15	12
	Index	6.1	5.8	5.7	5.5	7.0	3.7	7.2	2.6	4.7
Attention	Rank	8	8	8	7	6	13.5	9	14.5	13
	Percent	4.3	5.0	4.7	5.0	6.3	2.9	5.0	2.2	3.7
Emphasis	Rank	4	17	12	17	18	12	12	16	6
	Mean	1.41	1.15	1.22	1.10	1.11	1.27	1.44	1.16	1.28
Literature, arts, humanities										
Story value	Rank	8	6	10.5	4	5	10	8	8	13
	Index	5.5	7.6	5.6	9.3	8.7	5.9	7.0	5.8	4.2
Attention	Rank	7	5	9.5	4	4.5	9	7.5	8	11.5
	Percent	4.7	6.3	4.6	7.8	7.3	4.8	5.3	4.7	4.2
Emphasis	Rank	16	13	12	8.5	15	15.5	17	11.5	18.5
	Mean	1.17	1.20	1.22	1.19	1.19	1.22	1.33	1.23	1.00
Crime, corruption										
Story value	Rank	9.5	9	7	8	19.5	11.5	6	11	9.5
	Index	5.2	5.7	6.4	6.6	2.0	5.6	9.2	4.1	6.3
Attention	Rank	9.5	10	11	9	18	11	6	11	9
	Percent	4.1	3.9	4.1	4.6	1.7	4.4	6.8	3.2	5.8
Emphasis	Rank	9.5	2	2	2	14	12	16	6	15
	Mean	1.26	1.47	1.55	1.43	1.20	1.27	1.36	1.29	1.09
Science, scientists, technology										
Story, value	Rank	9.5	13	13.5	10	15	6	3	10	2
	Index	5.2	3.8	3.9	3.8	3.1	8.1	13.9	4.7	14.7
Attention	Rank	9.5	13	13	11	15.5	8	3	10	2
	Percent	4.1	3.0	3.1	3.1	2.4	5.9	9.3	4.0	9.5
Emphasis	Rank	9.5	8	9	6.5	11	5.5	10	14	1
	Mean	1.26	1.25	1.26	1.23	1.28	1.37	1.49	1.17	1.55

(Continued)

TABLE 6 (continued)

		U.S.	WEST EUR. Total	Great Brit.	West Germ.	France	EAST EUR. Total	Poland	Czech slov.	Hungary
Other lands and people; minorities										
Story value	Rank	11	14	8	20	21	18	15.5	17.5	14
	Index	4.6	3.4	5.8	1.4	1.4	2.5	3.2	1.9	3.7
Attention	Rank	12	14	9.5	20	19.5	17.5	15	18	14
	Percent	3.8	2.8	4.6	1.2	1.4	2.1	2.5	1.7	3.2
Emphasis	Rank	11	10	8	13	20	18	18	17	13.5
	Mean	1.22	1.23	1.27	1.16	1.00	1.18	1.28	1.14	1.16
Domestic activity, personal grooming										
Story value	Rank	12	7	10.5	5	13	4	13	4	15
	Index	4.4	6.6	5.6	8.2	5.2	8.8	3.9	11.7	3.6
Attention	Rank	11	6	7	5	8	4	10.5	2	15.5
	Percent	3.9	6.2	5.0	7.7	5.2	8.1	3.9	10.8	2.6
Emphasis	Rank	18	21	19	19.5	20	21	20	19	2
	Mean	1.13	1.07	1.11	1.06	1.00	1.09	1.00	1.08	1.40
Nature, animals, the elements										
Story value	Rank	13	11	13.5	11	7	7	18.5	5	9.5
	Index	4.0	4.2	3.9	3.6	7.0	7.7	2.1	9.9	6.3
Attention	Rank	13.5	12	14	10	9.5	7	18.5	6	10
	Percent	3.3	3.4	3.0	3.3	4.9	6.1	1.4	7.9	4.7
Emphasis	Rank	13	9	7	18	7	12	7	8.5	4.5
	Mean	1.21	1.24	1.30	1.09	1.43	1.27	1.50	1.25	1.33
Business, industry, labor										
Story value	Rank	14	12	16	12.5	4	8	11	7	7
	Index	3.5	3.9	3.0	3.2	9.6	7.6	5.4	8.4	7.3
Attention	Rank	13.5	11	15	12	4.5	6	12	7	6.5
	Percent	3.3	3.5	2.8	3.0	7.3	6.3	3.6	7.2	6.3
Emphasis	Rank	21	19	21	19.5	10	17	7	14	13.5
	Mean	1.07	1.13	1.06	1.06	1.31	1.21	1.50	1.17	1.16
Armed forces										
Story value	Rank	15	18	15	21	12	16	20	14	11
	Index	2.4	2.4	3.1	1.1	5.3	2.8	1.1	2.8	5.8
Attention	Rank	15.5	18.5	16.5	21	12.5	17.5	20	14.5	11.5
	Percent	2.0	1.9	2.5	.8	4.2	2.1	.7	2.2	4.2
Emphasis	Rank	13	7	10	4	12	9	7	7	3
	Mean	1.21	1.26	1.23	1.37	1.25	1.31	1.50	1.27	1.37

(Continued)

TABLE 6 (continued)

		U.S.	WEST EUR. Total	Great Brit.	West Germ.	France	EAST EUR. Total	Poland	Czech slov.	Hungary
Drunkenness, alcoholism, narcotics										
Story value	Rank	16.5	16	17.5	15.5	14	19	15.5	19.5	17
	Index	2.2	2.8	2.7	2.7	3.8	2.2	3.2	1.8	2.6
Attention	Rank	15.5	15	16.5	14.5	14	19	16	19	17.5
	Percent	2.0	2.6	2.5	2.6	3.1	1.7	2.1	1.4	2.1
Emphasis	Rank	20	20	20	21	13	7	7	8.5	8.5
	Mean	1.08	1.08	1.07	1.04	1.22	1.32	1.50	1.25	1.25
Religion, clergy										
Story value	Rank	16.5	19	19	15.5	18	17	14	16	17
	Index	2.2	2.3	2.1	2.7	2.1	2.7	3.8	2.4	2.6
Attention	Rank	19	18.5	19	16	17	16	13.5	16	15.5
	Percent	1.6	1.9	1.7	2.2	2.1	2.2	2.8	1.9	2.6
Emphasis	Rank	5	14	12	6.5	20	14	15	10	18.5
	Mean	1.39	1.19	1.22	1.23	1.00	1.23	1.37	1.24	1.00
Mental illness										
Story value	Rank	18.5	17	17.5	19	11	21	17	--	--
	Index	2.1	2.7	2.7	1.7	6.0	.6	2.9	--	--
Attention	Rank	19	17	18	19	12.5	21	17	--	--
	Percent	1.6	2.2	2.3	1.5	4.2	.4	1.8	--	--
Emphasis	Rank	7.5	11.5	17	14	8.5	1	2	--	--
	Mean	1.30	1.22	1.16	1.14	1.42	1.59	1.59	--	--
Supernatural, mysticism										
Story value	Rank	18.5	20.5	20	17	17	20	--	19.5	19.5
	Index	2.1	2.1	2.0	2.1	2.5	1.2	--	1.8	1.1
Attention	Rank	21	21	20	17	19.5	20	--	20	19.5
	Percent	1.3	1.5	1.3	1.8	1.4	.8	--	1.1	1.1
Emphasis	Rank	1	5	3	11.5	2	2	--	1	18.5
	Mean	1.62	1.37	1.50	1.17	1.75	1.54	--	1.66	1.00

(Continued)

TABLE 6 (continued)

		U.S.	WEST EUR. Total	Great Brit.	West Germ.	France	EAST EUR. Total	Poland	Czech slov.	Hungary
Accidents, catastrophies										
Story value	Rank	20	15	12	18	19.5	15	18.5	12	19.5
	Index	1.9	2.9	4.1	2.0	2.0	3.1	2.1	4.0	1.1
Attention	Rank	17	16	12	18	21	15	18.5	12	19.5
	Percent	1.7	2.5	3.7	1.7	1.0	2.4	1.4	3.1	1.1
Emphasis	Rank	17	15	18	10	1	9	7	5	18.5
	Mean	1.14	1.18	1.12	1.18	2.00	1.31	1.50	1.30	1.00
Historical events, themes										
Story value	Rank	21	20.5	21	14	16	11.5	12	9	6
	Index	1.8	2.1	1.2	3.0	2.7	5.6	4.5	5.5	7.9
Attention	Rank	19	20	21	14.5	15.5	12	13.5	9	6.5
	Percent	1.6	1.8	1.0	2.6	2.4	4.1	2.8	4.1	6.3
Emphasis	Rank	19	18	14	16	17	5.5	1	4	8.5
	Mean	1.12	1.14	1.20	1.12	1.14	1.37	1.62	1.35	1.25

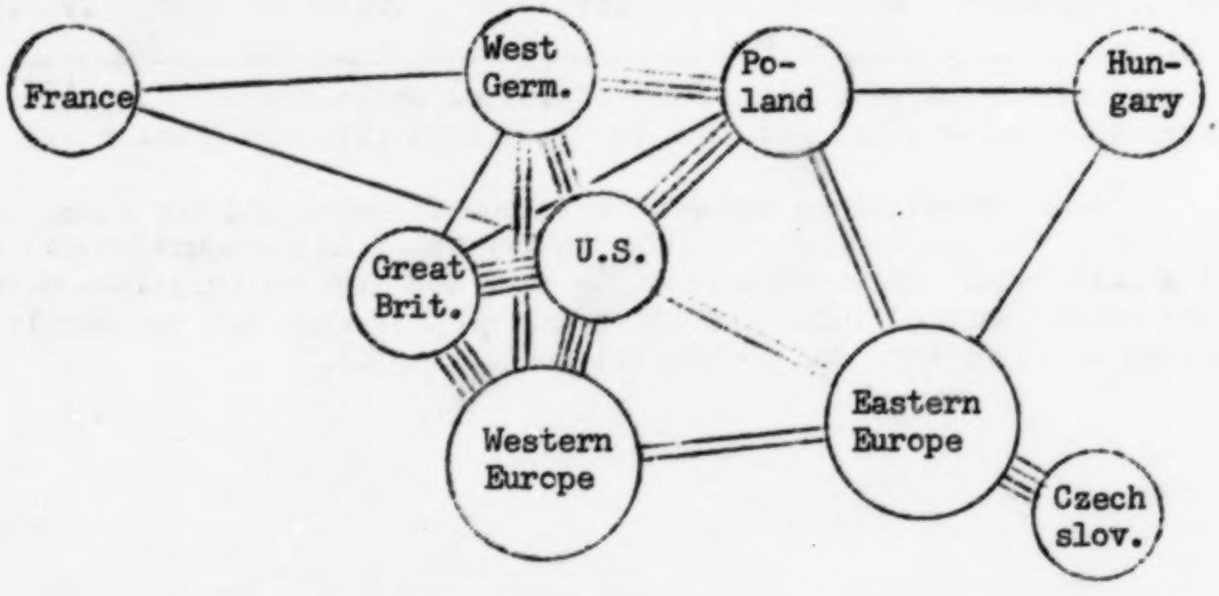

FIGURE 1

SOME RELATIONSHIPS IN OVERALL THEMATIC STRUCTURE AMONG COUNTRIES AND AREAS

This corregram attempts to represent graphically some theme story value rank correlations presented in Table 7 (next page). Only correlations of +.65 or above are shown. Single lines mark correlations of .65 to .69; double lines .70 to .79; triple lines .80 to .89; quadruple lines .90 or above. The length of the lines also indicates relative similarity (based on the rank correlations) with some countries and areas; however, it is impossible to represent all correlations by distance and position in two dimensions.

TABLE 7

RANK CORRELATIONS OF STORY VALUES BETWEEN COUNTRIES AND AREAS, AND OF FILMS WITH ALL-MEDIA SAMPLES WITHIN COUNTRIES

All-media totals; across countries and areas[1]	U.S.	WEST EUR. Total	Great Brit.	West Germ.	France	EAST EUR. Total	Po-land	Czech slov.	Hun-gary
United States		.92	.91	.80	.65	.70	.82	--	--
WESTERN EUROPE			.92	.76	--	.73	*	*	*
Great Britain				.66	--	*	.69	--	--
West Germany					.65	*	.81	--	--
France						*	--	--	--
EASTERN EUROPE							.71	.95	.66
Poland								--	.68
Czechoslovakia									--
All-media totals and films only; within countries[2]	.84		.87	.95	.91		.95	.99	.83

---

[1] Only positive correlations of .65 or above are shown. Dash (--) indicates correlation below .65. Asterisk (*) indicates that correlation was not computed.

[2] Rank correlations between these coefficients and the ranks of percent of films in all-media samples of each country was +.46 (product moment r = +.27), not significant. This would indicate that the high correlations between theme story value ranks of films and all-media samples were not due merely to the percentage of films included in the all-media samples.

TABLE 8

THEME RANKINGS AND MEASURES; ALL MEDIA TOTALS, AND FILMS ONLY; GREAT BRITAIN
(IN ORDER OF STORY VALUE RANKS)

	ALL MEDIA TOTALS						FILMS ONLY					
	Story value		Attention		Emphasis		Story value		Attention		Emphasis	
	Rank	Ind.	Rank	%	Rank	Mean	Rank	Ind.	Rank	%	Rank	Mean
Love, sex	1	23.2	1	14.4	1	1.61	1	16.8	1	12.2	7	1.38
Home, family, marriage	2	20.3	2	13.6	4	1.49	2	15.1	2	10.5	5	1.44
Financial success, hardship	3	9.6	3	7.3	6	1.32	5	8.4	6.5	5.9	6	1.43
Violence, war	4	8.8	4.5	6.0	5	1.47	3	13.3	3	9.2	4	1.45
Entertainment, mass media, sports	5	7.1	4.5	6.0	15	1.19	6	7.6	4.5	6.3	12.5	1.20
Public affairs, law enforcement	6	6.8	6	5.8	16	1.18	9.5	6.7	4.5	6.3	17	1.07
Crime, corruption	7	6.4	11	4.1	2	1.55	4	8.8	10.5	5.0	3	1.75
Other lands and people; minorities	8	5.8	9.5	4.6	8	1.27	7	7.2	8.5	5.5	8	1.31
Injury, illness, medicine	9	5.7	8	4.7	12	1.22	8	6.8	8.5	5.5	9	1.23
Domestic activity, personal grooming	10.5	5.6	7	5.0	19	1.11	20	1.7	19	1.7	19.5	1.00
Literature, arts, humanities	10.5	5.6	9.5	4.6	12	1.22	11	5.9	10.5	5.0	14.5	1.17
Accidents, catastrophies	12	4.1	12	3.7	18	1.12	9.5	6.7	6.5	5.9	16	1.14
Science,scientists, technology	13.5	3.9	13	3.1	9	1.26	12.5	4.6	12.5	3.8	10.5	1.22
Nature, animals, the elements	13.5	3.9	14	3.0	7	1.30	18.5	2.1	17	2.1	19.5	1.00
Armed forces	15	3.1	16.5	2.5	10	1.23	12.5	4.6	12.5	3.8	10.5	1.22
Business,industry, labor	16	3.0	15	2.8	21	1.06	18.5	2.1	17	2.1	19.5	1.00
Drunkenness, alcoholism, narcotics	17.5	2.7	16.5	2.5	20	1.07	14.5	2.9	14	2.9	19.5	1.00
Mental illness	17.5	2.7	18	2.3	17	1.16	14.5	2.9	15	2.5	14.5	1.17
Religion, clergy	19	2.1	19	1.7	12	1.22	17	2.5	17	2.1	12.5	1.20
Supernatural, mysticism	20	2.0	20	1.3	3	1.50	16	2.6	20	1.3	1.5	2.00
Historical events, themes	21	1.2	21	1.0	14	1.20	21	.8	21	.4	1.5	2.00

TABLE 9

THEME RANKINGS AND MEASURES; ALL MEDIA TOTALS, AND FILMS ONLY; WEST GERMANY (IN ORDER OF STORY VALUE RANKS)

	ALL MEDIA TOTALS						FILMS ONLY					
	Story value		Attention		Emphasis		Story value		Attention		Emphasis	
	Rank	Ind.	Rank	%	Rank	Mean	Rank	Ind.	Rank	%	Rank	Mean
Love, sex	1	25.0	1	14.7	1	1.70	1	26.4	1	15.0	1	1.76
Home, family, marriage	2	17.0	2	13.0	5	1.31	2	18.4	2	13.7	4	1.34
Entertainment, mass media, sports	3	10.6	3	9.4	15	1.13	3	12.0	3	11.3	15	1.06
Literature, arts, humanities	4	9.3	4	7.8	8.5	1.19	4	9.9	4	8.4	9.5	1.18
Domestic activity, personal grooming	5	8.2	5	7.7	19.5	1.06	8	6.2	6	6.2	18.5	1.00
Financial success, hardship	6	7.5	6	6.4	11.5	1.17	5	7.5	5	6.6	14	1.13
Violence, war	7	6.9	8	4.9	3	1.40	6	7.3	7.5	5.5	6	1.32
Crime, corruption	8	6.6	9	4.6	2	1.43	10	4.0	10	3.3	7.5	1.20
Injury, illness, medicine	9	5.5	7	5.0	17	1.10	7	6.4	7.5	5.5	12	1.16
Science, scientists, technology	10	3.8	11	3.1	6.5	1.23	14	2.8	13.5	2.4	9.5	1.18
Nature, animals, the elements	11	3.6	10	3.3	18	1.09	9	4.7	9	4.0	11	1.17
Business, industry, labor	12.5	3.2	12	3.0	19.5	1.06	12	3.5	11	3.1	13	1.14
Public affairs, law enforcement	12.5	3.2	13	2.7	8.5	1.19	11	3.6	12	2.7	5	1.33
Historical events, themes	14	3.0	14.5	2.6	16	1.12	15	2.4	13.5	2.4	18.5	1.00
Drunkenness, alcoholism, narcotics	15.5	2.7	14.5	2.6	21	1.04	16.5	2.0	15.5	2.0	18.5	1.00
Religion, clergy	15.5	2.7	16	2.2	6.5	1.23	13	2.9	15.5	2.0	3	1.44
Supernatural, mysticism	17	2.1	17	1.8	11.5	1.17	20	.9	20	.9	18.5	1.00
Accidents, catastrophies	18	2.0	18	1.7	10	1.18	18	1.8	17	1.8	18.5	1.00
Mental illness	19	1.7	19	1.5	14	1.14	19	1.3	19	1.1	7.5	1.20
Other lands and people; minorities	20	1.4	20	1.2	13	1.16	21	.7	21	.7	18.5	1.00
Armed forces	21	1.1	21	.8	4	1.37	16.5	2.0	18	1.3	2	1.50

TABLE 10

THEME RANKINGS AND MEASURES; ALL MEDIA TOTALS, AND FILMS ONLY; FRANCE (IN ORDER OF STORY VALUE RANKS)

	ALL MEDIA TOTALS						FILMS ONLY					
	Story value		Attention		Emphasis		Story value		Attention		Emphasis	
	Rank	Ind.	Rank	%	Rank	Mean	Rank	Ind.	Rank	%	Rank	Mean
Love, sex	1	18.1	1	11.8	5	1.53	3	12.6	3	9.3	8	1.36
Home, family, marriage	2	15.7	2	9.8	3	1.60	4	8.0	6.5	6.0	9.5	1.33
Violence, war	3	12.9	3	8.4	4	1.54	2	17.3	2	11.3	2	1.53
Business, industry, labor	4	9.6	4.5	7.3	10	1.31	1	17.6	1	13.2	9.5	1.33
Literature, arts, humanities	5	8.7	4.5	7.3	15	1.19	5.5	7.9	4.5	6.6	13	1.20
Injury, illness, medicine	7	7.0	6	6.3	18	1.11	8	6.7	6.5	6.0	16	1.11
Nature, animals, the elements	7	7.0	9.5	4.9	7	1.43	9	6.6	9.5	4.6	4	1.43
Financial success, hardship	7	7.0	9.5	4.9	8.5	1.42	12	4.6	13	3.3	5.5	1.40
Entertainment, mass media, sports	9.5	6.6	7	5.6	16	1.18	10	4.7	11	4.0	15	1.17
Public affairs, law enforcement	9.5	6.6	11	4.5	6	1.46	14	4.0	13	3.3	13	1.20
Mental illness	11	6.0	12.5	4.2	8.5	1.42	7	7.3	8	5.3	7	1.38
Armed forces	12	5.3	12.5	4.2	12	1.25	5.5	7.9	4.5	6.6	13	1.20
Domestic activity, personal grooming	13	5.2	8	5.2	20	1.00	12	4.6	9.5	4.6	19	1.00
Drunkenness, alcoholism, narcotics	14	3.8	14	3.1	13	1.22	16	2.6	15.5	2.6	19	1.00
Science, scientists, technology	15	3.1	15.5	2.4	11	1.28	12	4.6	13	3.3	5.5	1.40
Historical events, themes	16	2.7	15.5	2.4	17	1.14	15	3.3	15.5	2.6	11	1.25
Supernatural, mysticism	17	2.5	19.5	1.4	2	1.75	18	2.0	19.5	1.3	3	1.50
Religion, clergy	18	2.1	17	2.1	20	1.00	18	2.0	17.5	2.0	19	1.00
Crime, corruption	19.5	2.0	18	1.7	14	1.20	18	2.0	17.5	2.0	19	1.00
Accidents, catastrophies	19.5	2.0	21	1.0	1	2.00	20	1.4	21	.7	1	2.00
Other lands and people; minorities	21	1.4	19.5	1.4	20	1.00	21	1.3	19.5	1.3	19	1.00

TABLE 11

THEME RANKINGS AND MEASURES; ALL MEDIA TOTALS, AND FILMS ONLY; POLAND (IN ORDER OF STORY VALUE RANKS)

	ALL MEDIA TOTALS						FILMS ONLY					
	Story value Rank	Story value Ind.	Attention Rank	Attention %	Emphasis Rank	Emphasis Mean	Story value Rank	Story value Ind.	Attention Rank	Attention %	Emphasis Rank	Emphasis Mean
Home, family, marriage	1	21.2	1	13.5	3	1.57	1	20.1	1	14.9	10	1.35
Love, sex	2	17.7	2	12.1	11	1.46	4	12.2	4	9.6	14	1.27
Science, scientists, technology	3	13.9	3	9.3	10	1.49	2	15.7	2	11.4	8.5	1.38
Violence, war	4	12.8	4	8.2	4	1.56	5	11.4	5	8.8	13	1.30
Entertainment, mass media, sports	5	10.7	5	7.5	13.5	1.42	6	9.7	6	7.0	8.5	1.38
Crime, corruption	6	9.2	6	6.8	16	1.36	3	13.1	3	10.5	15	1.25
Injury, illness, medicine	7	7.2	9	5.0	12	1.44	7.5	6.2	8.5	4.4	6.5	1.40
Literature, arts, humanities	8	7.0	7.5	5.3	17	1.33	10.5	5.3	11.5	3.5	3.5	1.50
Public affairs, law enforcement	9	6.4	7.5	5.3	19	1.20	10.5	5.3	11.5	3.5	3.5	1.50
Financial success, hardship	10	5.5	10.5	3.9	13.5	1.42	10.5	5.3	11.5	3.5	3.5	1.50
Business, industry, labor	11	5.4	12	3.6	7	1.50	7.5	6.2	8.5	4.4	6.5	1.40
Historical events, themes	12	4.5	13.5	2.8	1	1.62	14	3.5	14.5	2.6	11.5	1.33
Domestic activity, personal grooming	13	3.9	10.5	3.9	20	1.00	10.5	5.3	7	5.3	18.5	1.00
Religion, clergy	14	3.8	13.5	2.8	15	1.37	18.5	.9	18	.9	18.5	1.00
Other lands and people; minorities	15.5	3.2	15	2.5	18	1.28	14	3.5	11.5	3.5	18.5	1.00
Drunkenness, alcoholism, narcotics	15.5	3.2	16	2.1	7	1.50	16	2.7	16	1.8	3.5	1.50
Mental illness	17	2.9	17	1.8	2	1.59	14	3.5	14.5	2.6	11.5	1.33
Nature, animals, the elements	18.5	2.1	18.5	1.4	7	1.50	17	1.8	18	.9	1	2.00
Accidents, catastrophies	18.5	2.1	18.5	1.4	7	1.50	18.5	.9	18	.9	18.5	1.00
Armed forces	20	1.1	20	.7	7	1.50	--	--	--	--	--	--

TABLE 12

THEME RANKINGS AND MEASURES; ALL MEDIA TOTALS, AND FILMS ONLY; CZECHOSLOVAKIA (IN ORDER OF STORY VALUE RANKS)

	ALL MEDIA TOTALS						FILMS ONLY					
	Story value		Attention		Emphasis		Story value		Attention		Emphasis	
	Rank	Ind.	Rank	%	Rank	Mean	Rank	Ind.	Rank	%	Rank	Mean
Love, sex	1	14.4	4	10.0	2	1.44	1	14.6	4	9.9	2	1.47
Home, family, marriage	2	13.8	1	11.2	11.5	1.23	2	13.2	2	10.9	10.5	1.21
Entertainment, mass media, sports	3	12.4	3	10.6	14	1.17	3.5	12.3	3	10.8	15	1.14
Domestic activity, personal grooming	4	11.7	2	10.8	19	1.08	3.5	12.3	1	11.3	19.5	1.09
Nature, animals, the elements	5	9.9	6	7.9	8.5	1.25	5	10.5	6	8.3	6.5	1.27
Public affairs, law enforcement	6	9.3	5	8.3	18	1.12	6	10.1	5	8.9	16.5	1.13
Business, industry, labor	7	8.4	7	7.2	14	1.17	7	8.9	7	7.7	13	1.16
Literature, arts, humanities	8	5.8	8	4.7	11.5	1.23	9	4.8	8	4.0	12	1.20
Historical events, themes	9	5.5	9	4.1	4	1.35	8	5.4	9	3.9	4	1.38
Science, scientists, technology	10	4.7	10	4.0	14	1.17	10	4.5	10	3.7	10.5	1.21
Crime, corruption	11	4.1	11	3.2	6	1.29	11	4.4	11	3.5	6.5	1.27
Accidents, catastrophies	12	4.0	12	3.1	5	1.30	12	4.1	12	3.2	5	1.29
Violence, war	13	3.6	13	2.6	3	1.40	13	3.9	13	2.7	3	1.45
Armed forces	14	2.8	14.5	2.2	7	1.27	14	2.6	14	2.1	8.5	1.25
Injury, illness, medicine	15	2.6	14.5	2.2	16	1.16	15	2.3	15	2.0	16.5	1.13
Religion, clergy	16	2.4	16	1.9	10	1.24	16.5	2.0	16	1.7	14	1.15
Financial success, hardship	17.5	1.9	17	1.8	20	1.06	19	1.6	18	1.5	19.5	1.09
Other lands and people; minorities	17.5	1.9	18	1.7	17	1.14	20	1.3	19	1.2	18	1.11
Drunkenness, alcoholism, narcotics	19.5	1.8	19	1.4	8.5	1.25	16.5	2.0	17	1.6	8.5	1.25
Supernatural, mysticism	19.5	1.8	20	1.1	1	1.66	18	1.9	20	1.1	1	1.75

TABLE 13

THEME RANKINGS AND MEASURES; ALL MEDIA TOTALS, AND FILMS ONLY; HUNGARY (IN ORDER OF STORY VALUE RANKS)

	ALL MEDIA TOTALS						FILMS ONLY					
	Story value		Attention		Emphasis		Story value		Attention		Emphasis	
	Rank	Ind.	Rank	%	Rank	Mean	Rank	Ind.	Rank	%	Rank	Mean
Home, family, marriage	1	15.8	1	13.2	12	1.20	4	11.3	3.5	9.7	14	1.17
Science, scientists, technology	2	14.7	2	9.5	1	1.55	1	19.3	1.5	11.3	3	1.71
Violence, war	3	10.0	3	7.9	7	1.26	3	12.9	3.5	9.7	9	1.33
Public affairs, law enforcement	4.5	8.4	4	6.8	11	1.23	10.5	6.4	10	4.8	9	1.33
Love, sex	4.5	8.4	6.5	6.3	4.5	1.33	2	16.2	1.5	11.3	6	1.43
Historical events, themes	6	7.9	6.5	6.3	8.5	1.25	6.5	8.0	5.5	6.4	12.5	1.25
Business, industry, labor	7	7.3	6.5	6.3	13.5	1.16	6.5	8.0	10	4.8	4.5	1.67
Financial success, hardship	8	6.8	6.5	6.3	16	1.08	10.5	6.4	10	4.8	9	1.33
Crime, corruption	9.5	6.3	9	5.8	15	1.09	6.5	8.0	5.5	6.4	12.5	1.25
Nature, animals, the elements	9.5	6.3	10	4.7	4.5	1.33	18	1.6	17	1.6	17	1.00
Armed forces	11	5.8	11.5	4.2	3	1.37	10.5	6.4	10	4.8	9	1.33
Injury, illness, medicine	12	4.7	13	3.7	6	1.28	6.5	8.0	10	4.8	4.5	1.67
Literature, arts, humanities	13	4.2	11.5	4.2	18.5	1.00	18	1.6	17	1.6	17	1.00
Other lands and people; minorities	14	3.7	14	3.2	13.5	1.16	15	3.2	14	3.2	17	1.00
Domestic activity, personal grooming	15	3.6	15.5	2.6	2	1.40	15	3.2	17	1.6	1.5	2.00
Religion, clergy	17	2.6	15.5	2.6	18.5	1.00	13	4.8	10	4.8	17	1.00
Drunkenness, alcoholism, narcotics	17	2.6	17.5	2.1	8.5	1.25	15	3.2	17	1.6	1.5	2.00
Entertainment, mass media, sports	17	2.6	17.5	2.1	10	1.24	10.5	6.4	10	4.8	9	1.33
Supernatural, mysticism	19.5	1.1	19.5	1.1	18.5	1.00	18	1.6	17	1.6	17	1.00
Accidents, catastrophies	19.5	1.1	19.5	1.1	18.5	1.00	--	--	--	--	--	--

Appendix IV-C

COMPOSITE CHARACTER TRAITS OF TEACHERS, STUDENTS AND OTHERS, AND RELATIVE DEVIATIONS FROM COUNTRY "NORMS"

The analysts' judgments of personality traits attributed to the fictional and dramatic characters in the stories were recorded on "personality differential" scales.[1] These are 7-point scales defined by contrasting adjectives representing a large variety of personality traits and characteristics. (All scales used in the analysis and instruction to analysts can be found in Appendix VI-B, Form C.)

Factor analysis of the ratings of all analyzed characters in all countries showed that 56.2 percent of the total variance could be accounted for by five factors. Each of these factors represents a group of personality traits (scales) more closely related to one another than to other such clusters of traits.

These personality factors, and their associated traits,[2] are the following:

1. "Congeniality." (Composed of "sociability" as measured on the "unsociable - sociable" scale, "attractiveness" as measured on "repulsive - attractive," and "kindness" as measured on "cruel - kind.")
2. "Vitality." (Composed of "freeness" vs. being "restrained," "boldness" vs. being "timid," and "sharpness" vs. being "dull.")
3. "Morality." (Composed of "cleanness" vs. being "dirty," "moral" vs. "immoral" qualities, and "honesty" vs. being "dishonest.")
4. "Stability." (Composed of being "stable" vs. "changeable," "calm," vs. "excitable," and "efficient" vs. "bungling.")
5. "Manliness." (Composed of "tallness" vs. being "short," "masculine" vs. "feminine" traits, and "toughness" vs. being "delicate.")

These five factors were, then, the principal dimensions entering into the judgment of presentations of fictional and dramatic characters in this study. (Scale loadings and percent variance by each factor appears on Table 1.)

A number of other personality traits were found to be relatively independent of the principal factors. These traits, and the scales on which they were rated, are the following:

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[1] The theory and methodology of the "personality differential" as an instrument for the measurement of the "semantic space" of personality judgments is being developed by Charles E. Osgood and Edward E. Ware of the Institute of Communications Research, University of Illinois. For a progress report on this work, see Osgood, C. E., "Studies on the Generality of Affective Meaning Systems." American Psychologist, 17:10-28, 1962.

[2] Scales appear here, and throughout these tables, reversed when necessary for uniform directionality. Actual scales marked by analysts appeared in random order and directionality. (See Appendix VI-B, Form C Answer Sheet.)

"Goodness" ("Bad - good")
"Unselfishness" ("Selfish - unselfish")
"Youthfulness" ("Old - young")
"Strength" ("Weak - strong")
"Tragic" qualities ("Comic - tragic")
"Sex appeal" ("Frigid - sexy")
"Democratic" qualities ("Tyrannical - democratic")
"Learnedness" ("Ignorant - learned")
"Happiness" ("Sad - happy")
"Purposefulness" ("Purposeless - purposeful")

Tables 2 to 11 present mean ratings and standard deviations by role and sex on the five factors and ten other traits in each country and area. The mid-point of the 7-point scale is 4.00; proximity of a mean score to that "dead center" means the absence of strong tendency or of relevance to the factor or trait judged. The higher the score above 4.00 the closer the judgment to the quality for which the factor or trait is named. The lower the score below 4.00, the closer the judgment to the opposite of the quality for which the factor or trait is named.

The number of characters in each role and sex category (top line of Tables 2 to 11) should be taken into consideration in interpreting the mean ratings. Standard deviations (second line of factor and scale figures) are provided to make calculations of statistical significance possible, and to indicate the extent "stereotype" (variance) in the portrayals.

Relative ratings

Relative ratings (based on the same measures) are grouped by factors and other traits and presented across areas and countries in Tables 12 to 25. These ratings were designed to point up relative personality differences among various groups of characters in different cultures, and to overcome certain problems of cross-cultural comparability inherent in comparisons based on absolute ratings alone.

The first step in obtaining these ratings was to determine the "norm" implicit in the actual use of the scales by the analyst team of each country. In order to avoid weighting these "norms" by the differences in the number of teachers, students, and others analyzed in each country, mean ratings for each role were considered equal and averaged to obtain "national means." Such "national means" were computed on each factor and scale for all characters, for all males, and for all females analyzed in each country.

The second step was to determine the mean distance of each role and sex group from each country's "national means" for all characters, all males, and all females. These distances appear in the tables as plus or minus scale points above or below the "national means." They indicate the direction and magnitude of the difference of each personality factor and trait (e.g. between teachers and all characters, male teachers and all males, and female teachers and all females, etc.) as defined by the "norms" implicit in each national team's actual use of the scales.

The first line of figures on the tabulation of relative ratings (Tables 12-25) shows the mean ratings for all characters and for characters by role and sex in each country. The second line of figures gives the mean distance of each role and sex mean from the "country means" of all characters.

The number of characters in each category and standard deviations are given in Tables 2 to 11. They should be taken into account before significance is attached to some of the unusual differences apparent on the comparative Tables. Special attention is called to the fact that the following categories contain fewer than 10 characters: Poland, female teachers (7 characters); Czechoslovakia, male "others" (6 characters) and female "others" (4 characters); Hungary, female teachers (9 characters), female students (9 characters), and female "others" (7 characters); U.S.S.R., all categories except teachers (tot.), students (tot.), and male students.

NOTE: A dash (---) on some of the Tables in this series means that the mean rating was not computed.

TABLE 1

VARIMAX ROTATION FOR FIVE FACTORS IN "PERSONALITY DIFFERENTIAL"; ALL CHARACTERS, ALL MEDIA, ALL COUNTRIES

Factor	Scales[1]	Scale loadings	Percent variance
"Congeniality"			
	Unsociable - sociable	.833	15.3
	Repulsive - attractive	.804	
	Cruel - kind	.759	
"Vitality"			
	Restrained - free	.823	14.2
	Timid - bold	.815	
	Dull - sharp	.740	
"Morality"			
	Dirty - clean	.770	10.4
	Immoral - moral	.749	
	Dishonest - honest	.688	
"Stability"			
	Changeable - stable	.760	9.7
	Excitable - calm	.723	
	Bungling - efficient	.705	
"Manliness"			
	Short - tall	.725	6.9
	Feminine - masculine	.708	
	Delicate - tough	.538	
		Total variance:	56.5

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[1] Scales appear here and throughout these tables, reversed when necessary for uniform directionality. Actual scales marked by analysts appeared in random order and directionality (see Appendix VI-B, Form C Answer Sheet).

TABLE 2

"PERSONALITY DIFFERENTIAL" MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS; UNITED STATES

		TEACHERS			STUDENTS			OTHERS		
		All	Male	Fem.	All	Male	Fem.	All	Male	Fem.
	N:	329	215	114	377	224	153	335	208	127
FACTORS										
"Congeniality"	Mean	5.3	5.1	5.5	5.3	5.2	5.5	5.2	5.1	5.4
	S.D.	1.4	1.4	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3
"Vitality"	Mean	4.8	4.9	4.8	4.9	4.9	4.9	4.9	5.0	4.8
	S.D.	1.4	1.5	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.3
"Morality"	Mean	5.5	5.4	5.7	5.1	5.0	5.2	5.2	5.1	5.3
	S.D.	1.3	1.3	1.1	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.2
"Stability"	Mean	4.7	4.6	4.8	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.3	4.4	4.2
	S.D.	1.6	1.7	1.4	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.6
"Manliness"	Mean	4.5	5.2	3.3	4.3	5.0	3.2	4.6	5.4	3.2
	S.D.	1.7	1.3	1.4	1.7	1.3	1.3	1.6	1.1	1.1
OTHER TRAITS										
"Goodness"	Mean	5.4	5.3	5.6	5.1	5.0	5.2	5.1	5.0	5.3
	S.D.	1.3	1.4	1.2	1.4	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.3
"Unselfishness"	Mean	4.9	4.7	5.1	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.6	4.4	4.8
	S.D.	1.6	1.7	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.5	1.7	1.7	1.6
"Youthfulness"	Mean	4.3	4.1	4.6	6.0	5.9	6.0	4.4	4.3	4.6
	S.D.	1.4	1.4	1.4	.8	.9	.7	1.3	1.3	1.4
"Strength"	Mean	5.0	5.0	4.9	4.7	4.7	4.6	5.0	5.2	4.6
	S.D.	1.4	1.5	1.3	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.3
"Tragic" qualities	Mean	3.9	3.8	4.1	3.9	3.7	4.3	3.9	3.8	4.1
	S.D.	1.3	1.4	1.1	1.5	1.5	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3
"Sex appeal"	Mean	4.6	4.5	4.9	4.9	4.9	5.1	4.9	4.7	5.2
	S.D.	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.0	.9	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.1
"Democratic" qualities	Mean	4.6	4.5	4.8	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.3	4.2	4.6
	S.D.	1.6	1.7	1.5	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.3
"Learnedness"	Mean	5.5	5.6	5.2	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.5	4.6	4.5
	S.D.	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.3	1.4	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.1
"Happiness"	Mean	4.6	4.6	4.7	4.4	4.5	4.4	4.5	4.5	4.5
	S.D.	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.5	1.4	1.6	1.4	1.4	1.4
"Purposefulness"	Mean	5.6	5.6	5.7	5.5	5.4	5.6	5.4	5.4	5.3
	S.D.	1.3	1.4	1.1	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.2

TABLE 3

"PERSONALITY DIFFERENTIAL" MEANS; WESTERN AND EASTERN EUROPE

	TEACHERS			STUDENTS			OTHERS		
	All	Male	Fem.	All	Male	Fem.	All	Male	Fem.
				WESTERN EUROPE					
FACTORS									
"Congeniality"	5.3	5.2	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.7	5.4	5.2	5.5
"Vitality"	5.0	5.1	4.8	5.0	5.1	4.4	5.2	5.3	5.1
"Morality"	5.7	5.6	5.9	5.3	5.3	5.4	5.4	5.2	5.6
"Stability"	5.0	4.9	5.2	4.4	4.5	4.3	4.8	4.9	4.8
"Manliness"	4.6	5.3	3.3	4.1	5.1	2.8	4.3	5.5	3.0
OTHER TRAITS									
"Goodness"	5.7	5.4	6.0	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.2	5.1	5.8
"Unselfishness"	4.4	4.2	5.0	3.9	3.7	4.1	4.2	4.0	4.5
"Youthfulness"	4.2	3.9	4.8	6.1	6.2	6.0	4.7	4.2	5.2
"Strength"	4.9	5.0	4.8	4.8	5.1	4.2	5.2	5.4	4.9
"Tragic" qualities	4.2	4.1	4.2	4.3	4.3	4.4	4.4	4.3	4.6
"Sex appeal"	4.6	4.5	4.7	5.3	5.0	5.6	5.1	4.8	5.4
"Democratic" qualities	4.7	4.6	4.9	4.7	4.6	4.8	4.3	3.9	4.6
"Learnedness"	5.8	5.9	5.5	4.8	4.9	4.6	4.5	4.7	4.3
"Happiness"	4.5	4.4	4.7	4.3	4.3	4.4	4.3	4.4	4.2
"Purposefulness"	5.8	5.8	5.7	5.4	5.5	5.3	5.7	5.8	5.7
				EASTERN EUROPE					
FACTORS									
"Congeniality"	5.2	5.0	6.0	5.6	5.4	5.9	4.6	4.4	5.0
"Vitality"	4.9	4.9	5.2	5.2	5.3	5.0	5.0	5.1	4.9
"Morality"	5.9	5.7	6.5	5.7	5.5	6.0	5.3	5.1	5.7
"Stability"	5.3	5.2	5.5	4.6	4.7	4.4	4.6	4.7	4.6
"Manliness"	4.5	4.8	3.4	4.3	4.6	3.7	4.5	5.0	3.6
OTHER TRAITS									
"Goodness"	5.7	5.4	6.4	5.7	5.5	6.0	5.4	5.1	5.6
"Unselfishness"	5.0	4.6	6.0	4.3	4.3	4.4	4.7	4.4	5.0
"Youthfulness"	4.0	3.5	5.6	6.6	6.6	6.6	4.8	4.6	5.5
"Strength"	4.7	4.8	4.7	4.6	4.9	3.9	5.2	5.3	4.9
"Tragic" qualities	4.1	4.1	3.9	4.0	4.0	4.1	4.6	4.4	4.8
"Sex appeal"	4.5	4.5	4.5	4.8	4.7	5.2	5.0	4.7	5.4
"Democratic" qualities	5.5	5.1	6.3	5.5	5.4	5.6	4.8	4.5	5.0
"Learnedness"	6.0	6.0	6.1	4.4	4.3	4.5	4.3	4.2	4.4
"Happiness"	4.6	4.3	5.1	4.5	4.4	4.7	3.6	3.6	3.7
"Purposefulness"	5.9	5.7	6.2	5.2	5.2	5.3	5.3	5.6	4.7

TABLE 4

"PERSONALITY DIFFERENTIAL" MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS; GREAT BRITAIN

		TEACHERS			STUDENTS			OTHERS		
		All	Male	Fem.	All	Male	Fem.	All	Male	Fem.
	N:	200	140	60	168	98	70	260	143	117
FACTORS										
"Congeniality"	Mean	5.5	5.4	5.9	5.5	5.6	5.5	5.4	5.2	5.3
	S.D.	1.5	1.6	1.3	1.6	1.7	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.4
"Vitality"	Mean	5.2	5.2	5.0	5.2	5.5	3.7	5.2	5.3	5.1
	S.D.	1.6	1.6	1.5	1.7	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.5	1.5
"Morality"	Mean	5.7	5.6	5.8	5.4	5.5	5.4	5.4	5.2	5.7
	S.D.	1.6	1.6	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.6	1.7	1.8	1.5
"Stability"	Mean	5.0	5.1	5.0	4.3	4.6	4.0	4.7	4.8	4.7
	S.D.	1.8	1.8	1.7	1.9	2.0	1.8	1.9	1.9	1.8
"Manliness"	Mean	4.9	5.5	3.4	4.5	5.4	3.1	4.5	5.6	3.3
	S.D.	1.7	1.2	1.3	1.7	1.5	1.2	1.9	1.3	1.3
OTHER TRAITS										
"Goodness"	Mean	5.7	5.2	6.0	5.4	5.5	5.3	5.3	5.1	5.7
	S.D.	1.5	1.6	1.3	1.5	1.6	1.4	1.7	1.8	1.5
"Unselfishness"	Mean	4.8	4.6	5.3	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.6	4.3	4.8
	S.D.	2.0	2.1	1.7	1.9	2.0	1.7	2.0	2.0	2.0
"Youthfulness"	Mean	4.4	4.1	5.1	6.2	6.3	6.0	4.8	4.4	5.3
	S.D.	1.7	1.6	1.5	1.0	.9	1.0	1.6	1.5	1.5
"Strength"	Mean	5.2	5.3	5.1	5.0	5.3	4.6	5.3	5.3	5.3
	S.D.	1.7	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.8	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.6
"Tragic" qualities	Mean	4.1	4.1	3.9	4.3	4.2	4.4	4.5	4.4	4.6
	S.D.	1.3	1.4	1.1	1.5	1.6	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.3
"Sex appeal"	Mean	4.4	4.3	4.6	4.9	4.7	5.2	4.8	4.5	5.1
	S.D.	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.1	1.2	.9	1.2	1.2	1.1
"Democratic" qualities	Mean	4.7	4.7	4.7	4.6	4.6	4.7	4.2	3.8	4.6
	S.D.	1.8	1.9	1.6	1.4	1.7	1.0	1.9	1.9	1.8
"Learnedness"	Mean	5.6	5.8	5.1	4.7	4.9	4.4	4.4	4.6	4.3
	S.D.	1.2	1.2	1.0	1.4	1.5	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.3
"Happiness"	Mean	4.9	4.7	5.3	4.5	4.7	4.2	4.3	4.3	4.3
	S.D.	1.7	1.7	1.5	1.9	1.9	1.8	1.7	1.7	1.8
"Purposefulness"	Mean	5.9	5.9	5.8	5.6	5.7	5.3	5.9	5.9	5.9
	S.D.	1.4	1.3	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.5	1.4	1.2	1.3

TABLE 5

"PERSONALITY DIFFERENTIAL" MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS; WEST GERMANY

		TEACHERS			STUDENTS			OTHERS		
		All	Male	Fem.	All	Male	Fem.	All	Male	Fem.
	N:	141	101	40	154	92	62	111	55	56
FACTORS										
"Congeniality"	Mean	5.3	5.2	5.4	5.7	5.5	6.0	5.7	5.3	6.0
	S.D.	1.8	1.9	1.7	1.5	1.6	1.3	1.6	1.9	1.3
"Vitality"	Mean	5.2	5.3	4.9	5.0	4.9	5.1	5.3	5.5	5.2
	S.D.	1.5	1.6	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.5
"Morality"	Mean	5.9	5.7	6.3	5.4	5.3	5.5	5.4	5.2	5.6
	S.D.	1.6	1.8	1.3	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.8	1.5
"Stability"	Mean	5.2	5.1	5.6	4.7	4.7	4.7	5.1	5.1	5.1
	S.D.	2.0	2.1	1.7	1.9	1.9	1.9	1.9	2.0	1.8
"Manliness"	Mean	4.6	5.2	3.1	3.8	4.8	2.4	4.0	5.3	2.6
	S.D.	2.0	1.3	1.5	2.0	1.5	1.1	2.1	1.3	1.1
OTHER TRAITS										
"Goodness"	Mean	5.9	5.8	6.1	5.8	5.7	5.8	5.8	5.5	6.1
	S.D.	1.6	1.7	1.5	1.7	1.5	1.6	1.7	2.0	1.1
"Unselfishness"	Mean	3.9	3.7	4.4	3.2	2.9	3.6	3.5	3.1	4.0
	S.D.	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.2	2.0	2.3	2.3	2.2	2.3
"Youthfulness"	Mean	3.9	3.7	4.4	6.1	6.1	6.1	4.6	4.1	5.1
	S.D.	1.6	1.7	1.4	1.5	.7	.7	1.5	1.6	1.2
"Strength"	Mean	4.9	5.0	4.4	4.6	5.1	3.8	5.0	5.8	4.2
	S.D.	1.8	1.8	1.6	1.7	1.5	1.7	1.9	1.6	1.8
"Tragic" qualities	Mean	4.3	4.3	4.2	4.2	4.2	4.1	4.3	4.0	4.6
	S.D.	1.5	1.5	1.3	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.5	1.7	1.3
"Sex appeal"	Mean	4.8	4.9	4.6	5.7	5.4	6.1	5.7	5.6	5.9
	S.D.	1.5	1.4	1.8	1.3	1.4	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.1
"Democratic" qualities	Mean	4.9	4.7	5.2	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.6	4.2	5.0
	S.D.	2.2	2.3	1.8	1.7	1.7	1.6	2.0	2.2	1.7
"Learnedness"	Mean	6.3	6.3	6.2	5.0	5.0	5.0	4.7	5.0	4.4
	S.D.	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.7	1.8	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.5
"Happiness"	Mean	4.4	4.4	4.2	4.6	4.4	4.8	4.6	4.8	4.4
	S.D.	1.7	1.7	1.5	1.9	1.9	1.8	1.7	1.8	1.6
"Purposefulness"	Mean	5.9	5.9	5.9	5.4	5.3	5.5	5.6	5.6	5.6
	S.D.	1.5	1.6	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.6

TABLE 6

"PERSONALITY DIFFERENTIAL" MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS; FRANCE

		TEACHERS			STUDENTS			OTHERS		
		All	Male	Fem.	All	Male	Fem.	All	Male	Fem.
FACTORS	N:	56	36	20	34	20	14	37	17	20
"Congeniality"	Mean	4.8	4.5	5.3	5.2	4.7	5.8	5.0	4.6	5.4
	S.D.	1.9	1.8	1.8	1.7	1.7	1.5	1.8	1.7	1.8
"Vitality"	Mean	4.1	3.8	4.7	4.3	4.2	4.5	4.7	5.0	4.4
	S.D.	2.0	2.0	1.8	1.9	2.1	1.8	2.0	2.0	2.1
"Morality"	Mean	5.1	4.9	5.5	4.7	4.3	5.2	4.9	4.7	5.0
	S.D.	1.9	1.9	2.0	1.8	1.7	1.7	2.0	2.1	1.9
"Stability"	Mean	4.2	3.8	4.8	3.5	3.1	4.0	4.6	5.0	4.2
	S.D.	2.0	2.1	1.8	1.8	1.9	1.6	2.1	2.1	2.2
"Manliness"	Mean	4.0	4.6	3.7	3.8	4.6	2.7	4.0	5.4	2.8
	S.D.	2.1	1.7	1.7	1.9	1.7	1.4	2.1	1.5	1.5
OTHER TRAITS										
"Goodness"	Mean	5.2	4.9	5.8	5.5	5.4	5.7	5.0	4.5	5.4
	S.D.	2.1	2.0	2.1	1.4	1.4	1.4	2.0	2.2	1.7
"Unselfishness"	Mean	4.5	4.0	5.3	4.7	4.4	5.1	4.1	3.6	4.5
	S.D.	2.3	2.2	2.1	2.1	2.2	1.9	2.3	2.3	2.3
"Youthfulness"	Mean	4.3	4.0	5.0	6.1	6.1	6.1	4.3	3.6	5.0
	S.D.	1.6	1.5	1.5	.5	.5	.5	1.4	1.2	1.3
"Strength"	Mean	4.1	3.7	4.9	4.2	4.3	4.1	4.9	4.9	5.0
	S.D.	2.2	2.2	2.1	1.9	1.9	2.0	1.9	1.8	2.0
"Tragic" qualities	Mean	4.2	3.9	4.9	5.2	5.1	5.5	4.4	4.3	4.4
	S.D.	1.8	2.0	1.3	1.8	1.8	1.7	1.9	1.8	2.1
"Sex appeal"	Mean	4.8	4.7	5.0	5.3	5.3	5.2	5.5	5.5	5.4
	S.D.	1.6	1.7	1.5	1.4	1.1	1.7	1.9	1.6	2.2
"Democratic" qualities	Mean	4.2	3.8	4.9	4.5	4.0	5.3	3.9	3.7	4.1
	S.D.	2.2	2.2	2.1	1.6	1.5	1.4	2.2	2.3	2.1
"Learnedness"	Mean	5.2	5.3	5.2	4.3	4.4	4.1	4.0	4.4	3.7
	S.D.	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.7	1.7	1.8	1.8	2.0	1.6
"Happiness"	Mean	3.2	2.8	4.0	2.9	2.7	3.1	3.4	3.8	3.1
	S.D.	1.7	1.6	1.8	1.7	1.8	1.7	2.1	1.8	2.3
"Purposefulness"	Mean	5.2	5.1	5.4	4.8	4.9	4.8	5.3	5.7	5.0
	S.D.	1.7	1.8	1.5	1.7	1.8	1.7	1.9	1.6	2.1

TABLE 7

"PERSONALITY DIFFERENTIAL" MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS; POLAND

		TEACHERS			STUDENTS			OTHERS		
		All	Male	Fem.	All	Male	Fem.	All	Male	Fem.
	N:	43	36	7	101	66	35	73	46	27
FACTORS										
"Congeniality"	Mean	5.0	5.0	5.1	5.2	5.1	5.4	4.4	4.3	4.5
	S.D.	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.6
"Vitality"	Mean	4.8	4.8	4.7	4.9	5.1	4.4	5.0	5.0	4.9
	S.D.	1.4	1.5	1.3	1.8	1.7	1.7	1.6	1.7	1.5
"Morality"	Mean	5.3	5.2	6.1	5.2	5.1	5.3	5.0	4.9	5.3
	S.D.	1.6	1.6	1.5	1.8	1.9	1.6	1.8	1.9	1.6
"Stability"	Mean	4.9	5.0	4.5	4.8	4.7	4.9	4.8	4.8	4.8
	S.D.	1.8	1.7	1.6	1.8	1.7	1.8	1.9	1.9	1.9
"Manliness"	Mean	4.1	4.3	2.9	4.4	4.6	4.1	4.6	4.9	4.0
	S.D.	1.6	1.6	1.3	1.8	1.8	1.7	1.8	1.6	1.7
OTHER TRAITS										
"Goodness"	Mean	5.1	5.0	5.6	5.3	5.2	5.4	5.2	5.1	5.5
	S.D.	1.8	1.8	1.8	2.0	2.0	1.9	1.8	1.9	1.7
"Unselfishness"	Mean	4.3	4.1	5.6	4.7	4.8	4.6	4.5	4.5	4.6
	S.D.	2.0	1.9	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.1	2.4	2.4	2.3
"Youthfulness"	Mean	3.4	3.1	4.7	6.3	6.3	6.4	4.9	4.6	5.5
	S.D.	1.8	1.6	2.0	.9	.9	1.0	1.8	1.9	1.6
"Strength"	Mean	4.1	4.3	3.2	5.1	5.3	4.6	4.9	5.3	4.2
	S.D.	1.7	1.6	1.4	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.8	1.7	1.7
"Tragic" qualities	Mean	4.2	4.3	4.0	4.9	4.9	4.9	4.7	4.7	4.8
	S.D.	1.1	1.2	.5	1.3	1.4	1.1	1.4	1.5	1.5
"Sex appeal"	Mean	4.2	4.3	4.0	4.7	4.5	5.1	4.9	4.7	5.3
	S.D.	1.4	1.3	1.6	1.3	1.4	1.1	1.6	1.5	1.6
"Democratic" qualities	Mean	5.1	5.0	5.8	4.8	4.8	4.7	4.7	4.7	4.6
	S.D.	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.9	1.8	2.1	1.9	1.9	1.8
"Learnedness"	Mean	5.6	5.7	5.4	4.1	4.0	4.4	4.1	4.0	4.2
	S.D.	1.0	1.0	.9	1.7	1.7	1.6	1.7	2.0	1.2
"Happiness"	Mean	3.3	3.2	3.8	3.2	3.0	3.6	3.3	3.0	3.7
	S.D.	1.4	1.4	1.6	1.9	1.8	2.1	1.9	1.8	2.2
"Purposefulness"	Mean	5.4	5.4	5.4	5.1	5.0	5.3	5.1	5.4	4.5
	S.D.	1.5	1.4	2.2	1.8	1.9	1.6	1.9	1.9	1.9

TABLE 8

"PERSONALITY DIFFERENTIAL" MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS; CZECHOSLOVAKIA

		TEACHERS			STUDENTS			OTHERS		
		All	Male	Fem.	All	Male	Fem.	All	Male	Fem.
	N:	83	58	25	148	105	43	10	6	4
FACTORS										
"Congeniality"	Mean	5.3	4.9	6.3	5.9	5.7	6.5	6.0	5.4	6.7
	S.D.	1.8	1.9	1.1	1.3	1.3	1.1	1.5	1.6	.4
"Vitality"	Mean	4.9	4.8	5.4	5.5	5.4	5.6	4.9	5.5	4.0
	S.D.	2.0	2.1	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.5	1.9	1.8	1.5
"Morality"	Mean	6.1	5.8	6.6	6.0	5.8	6.5	6.5	6.2	6.7
	S.D.	1.6	1.8	1.0	1.5	1.6	1.1	.7	.8	.4
"Stability"	Mean	5.4	5.3	5.7	4.6	4.8	4.1	4.2	4.2	4.5
	S.D.	1.8	1.9	1.5	5.7	1.8	2.0	1.6	1.3	.9
"Manliness"	Mean	4.6	4.9	3.8	4.3	4.6	3.6	4.2	4.3	3.7
	S.D.	2.0	1.7	1.5	2.1	1.8	1.3	2.0	1.4	.4
OTHER TRAITS										
"Goodness"	Mean	5.7	5.3	6.5	6.0	5.8	6.6	6.2	5.8	6.5
	S.D.	1.8	2.0	1.1	1.5	1.6	1.0	1.2	1.3	.5
"Unselfishness"	Mean	4.9	4.3	6.0	3.9	3.8	4.1	6.1	5.6	7.0
	S.D.	2.3	2.5	1.4	2.2	2.1	2.3	1.6	1.8	.0
"Youthfulness"	Mean	4.5	3.9	5.8	6.8	6.7	6.9	5.0	4.6	5.5
	S.D.	2.0	1.9	1.7	.6	.7	.5	1.9	2.2	1.6
"Strength"	Mean	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.3	4.7	3.4	4.3	5.0	2.0
	S.D.	2.0	2.1	1.8	2.0	1.9	2.0	2.3	2.1	1.1
"Tragic" qualities	Mean	3.8	3.8	3.9	3.4	3.3	3.5	4.3	3.7	5.0
	S.D.	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.8	1.8	1.7	1.6	2.2	.0
"Sex appeal"	Mean	4.5	4.5	4.5	4.9	4.8	5.2	4.7	4.2	5.5
	S.D.	1.1	1.2	.9	1.1	1.1	1.2	.8	.4	.5
"Democratic" qualities	Mean	5.4	5.0	6.4	6.0	5.8	6.4	5.8	4.9	7.0
	S.D.	2.2	2.4	1.1	1.4	1.5	1.1	2.4	2.7	.0
"Learnedness"	Mean	5.9	5.9	6.0	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4	3.5	5.5
	S.D.	1.5	1.7	1.0	1.9	1.8	2.0	1.4	1.3	.5
"Happiness"	Mean	5.1	5.0	5.6	5.4	5.3	5.5	4.3	4.8	3.0
	S.D.	1.8	1.8	1.7	1.9	1.9	1.9	1.8	1.9	.0
"Purposefulness"	Mean	6.0	5.9	6.4	5.3	5.3	5.3	6.4	6.8	5.5
	S.D.	1.5	1.6	1.1	2.0	2.0	2.1	1.0	.4	1.6

TABLE 9

"PERSONALITY DIFFERENTIAL" MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS; HUNGARY

		TEACHERS			STUDENTS			OTHERS		
		All	Male	Fem.	All	Male	Fem.	All	Male	Fem.
	N:	39	30	9	30	21	9	27	20	7
FACTORS										
"Congeniality"	Mean	5.4	5.2	5.7	5.0	5.0	4.9	4.7	4.3	5.9
	S.D.	1.7	1.8	1.0	1.5	1.5	1.4	2.0	1.1	1.5
"Vitality"	Mean	5.1	5.1	5.0	4.9	5.0	4.7	5.2	5.2	5.2
	S.D.	1.6	1.5	1.8	1.9	1.9	1.7	2.0	1.8	1.1
"Morality"	Mean	6.1	5.9	6.6	5.5	5.3	5.9	5.7	5.3	6.5
	S.D.	1.5	1.6	1.1	1.9	1.8	1.2	1.9	2.0	.8
"Stability"	Mean	5.3	5.2	5.9	4.2	4.2	4.3	4.4	4.5	4.1
	S.D.	1.8	1.9	1.2	2.0	2.2	1.4	2.2	2.4	1.3
"Manliness"	Mean	4.6	5.3	2.7	3.9	4.3	2.8	4.4	5.4	1.9
	S.D.	2.1	1.5	1.0	2.0	1.8	1.4	2.3	1.7	.6
OTHER TRAITS										
"Goodness"	Mean	6.1	5.9	6.8	5.6	5.4	6.1	5.4	4.9	
	S.D.	1.6	1.7	.4	1.8	2.1	.8	2.0	2.1	
"Unselfishness"	Mean	5.7	5.4	6.4	5.0	5.1	5.0	4.5	4.1	5.5
	S.D.	1.9	2.1	.7	1.7	1.8	1.7	2.4	2.5	2.1
"Youthfulness"	Mean	3.9	3.4	5.7	6.3	6.4	6.1	4.4	4.0	
	S.D.	1.6	1.4	1.0	.9	.9	.8	1.7	1.8	
"Strength"	Mean	5.2	5.2	5.3	4.3	4.5	4.0	4.9	5.4	3.5
	S.D.	1.8	2.0	1.3	2.0	2.2	1.4	2.3	2.2	2.3
"Tragic" qualities	Mean	4.4	4.4	4.1	4.1	4.2	4.0	4.2	4.0	4.8
	S.D.	2.5	2.6	2.0	1.7	2.0	.7	1.6	1.7	.9
"Sex appeal"	Mean	4.5	4.4	4.9	4.7	4.6	5.0	5.3	5.1	5.9
	S.D.	.9	.8	1.7	.9	.9	1.0	1.7	1.9	1.2
"Democratic" qualities	Mean	5.6	5.4	6.3	5.5	5.7	5.2	4.4	4.0	5.3
	S.D.	1.9	2.0	.7	1.2	1.2	1.3	2.2	2.4	1.7
"Learnedness"	Mean	6.6	6.6	6.8	5.0	4.8	5.6	4.6	4.8	4.3
	S.D.	.7	.7	.7	1.8	1.9	1.3	1.9	2.0	1.7
"Happiness"	Mean	4.5	4.4	5.0	4.1	3.8	5.0	4.5	4.7	4.0
	S.D.	2.0	2.0	1.7	2.1	2.1	1.9	2.1	2.0	2.3
"Purposefulness"	Mean	6.0	5.9	6.3	5.0	4.9	5.1	5.6	5.7	
	S.D.	1.5	1.7	.9	1.9	2.1	1.0	1.9	2.1	

TABLE 10

"PERSONALITY DIFFERENTIAL" MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS; U.S.S.R.

		TEACHERS			STUDENTS			OTHERS		
		All	Male	Fem.	All	Male	Fem.	All	Male	Fem.
	N:	15	7	8	23	19	4	6	4	2
FACTORS										
"Congeniality"	Mean	5.8	6.0	5.6	5.1	5.0	5.8	4.7	4.8	4.5
	S.D.	1.3	.7	1.5	1.8	1.8	1.9	1.5	1.6	
"Vitality"	Mean	5.6	6.3	5.0	4.5	4.8	3.3	5.4	5.5	5.3
	S.D.	1.4	.5	1.7	2.0	1.9	.5	1.7	1.3	
"Morality"	Mean	6.9	7.0	6.8	5.6	5.6	5.8	6.1	6.6	5.2
	S.D.	.4	.0	.5	2.0	1.9	3.3	.8	1.0	
"Stability"	Mean	6.2	6.9	5.6	4.2	4.2	4.1	5.6	6.1	4.7
	S.D.	2.0	.3	2.4	2.3	2.3	2.1	1.9	2.1	
"Manliness"	Mean	4.9	5.6	4.3	4.4	4.6	3.3	4.7	4.8	4.5
	S.D.	2.2	.3	1.4	2.1	1.7	.9	2.5	.9	
OTHER TRAITS										
"Goodness"	Mean	6.9	7.0	6.8	5.2	5.1	5.8	5.7	6.5	4.0
	S.D.	.6	.0	.8	2.1	2.1	3.5	1.0	1.1	
"Unselfishness"	Mean	6.8	7.0	6.6	4.9	4.7	5.8	5.7	5.8	5.5
	S.D.	.7	.0	.8	2.5	2.5	3.6	2.5	2.9	
"Youthfulness"	Mean	4.5	4.3	4.6	6.2	6.2	6.3	4.5	5.0	3.5
	S.D.	.5	.5	.5	.6	.7	.0	.8	.6	
"Strength"	Mean	6.1	6.9	5.4	5.3	5.5	4.3	6.2	6.8	5.0
	S.D.	2.3	.0	2.8	2.4	2.4	.7	1.9	.6	
"Tragic" qualities	Mean	4.0	4.0	4.1	3.8	3.4	5.5	4.2	4.3	4.0
	S.D.	.6	.0	.7	1.6	1.4	.0	2.1	2.5	
"Sex appeal"	Mean	4.3	4.3	4.4	4.9	4.9	4.8	4.4	4.8	3.5
	S.D.	1.6	1.0	2.0	1.1	1.2	.0	1.3	1.5	
"Democratic" qualities	Mean	6.5	7.0	6.1	4.4	4.3	5.0	5.2	5.8	4.0
	S.D.	1.9	.0	2.4	2.3	2.3	3.5	2.5	2.9	
"Learnedness"	Mean	7.0	7.0	7.0	3.8	3.5	5.3	3.7	4.5	2.0
	S.D.	.0	.0	.0	1.9	1.9	2.1	1.5	1.5	
"Happiness"	Mean	5.2	7.0	3.6	5.5	5.7	4.8	4.5	5.8	2.0
	S.D.	1.5	.0	1.4	2.1	2.1	2.8	1.3	1.5	
"Purposefulness"	Mean	6.9	7.0	6.8	4.8	4.7	5.0	6.5	6.5	6.5
	S.D.	.4	.0	.5	2.3	2.4	2.1	.5	.6	

TABLE 11

"CONGENIALITY FACTOR"; ALL COUNTRIES AND AREAS

	ALL CHARACTERS				MALES				FEMALES			
	Mean for all char.	Mean scores and distances			Mean for all males	Mean scores and distances			Mean for all fem.	Mean scores and distances		
		Teachers	Students	Others		Teachers	Students	Others		Teachers	Students	Others
United States	5.3	5.3 .0	5.3 .0	5.2 -.1	5.1	5.1 .0	5.2 +.1	5.1 .0	5.5	5.5 .0	5.5 .0	5.4 -.1
WESTERN EUROPE	5.4	5.3 -.1	5.6 +.2	5.4 .0	5.3	5.2 -.1	5.6 +.3	5.2 -.1	5.6	5.6 .0	5.7 +.1	5.5 -.1
Great Britain	5.5	5.5 .0	5.5 .0	5.4 -.1	5.4	5.4 .0	5.6 +.2	5.2 -.2	5.6	5.9 +.3	5.5 -.1	5.3 -.3
West Germany	5.6	5.3 -.3	5.7 +.1	5.7 +.1	5.3	5.2 -.1	5.5 +.2	5.3 .0	5.8	5.4 -.4	6.0 +.2	6.0 +.2
France	5.0	4.8 -.2	5.2 +.2	5.0 .0	4.6	4.5 -.1	4.7 +.1	4.6 .0	5.5	5.3 -.2	5.8 +.3	5.4 -.1
EASTERN EUROPE	5.1	5.2 +.1	5.6 +.5	4.6 -.5	4.9	5.0 +.1	5.4 +.5	4.4 -.5	5.6	6.0 +.4	5.9 +.3	5.0 -.6
Poland	4.9	5.0 +.1	5.2 +.3	4.4 -.5	4.8	5.0 +.2	5.1 +.3	4.3 -.5	5.0	5.1 +.1	5.4 +.4	4.5 -.5
Czech	5.7	5.3 -.4	5.9 +.2	6.0 +.3	5.3	4.9 -.4	5.7 +.4	5.4 +.1	6.5	6.3 -.2	6.5 .0	6.7 +.2
Hungary	5.0	5.4 +.4	5.0 .0	4.7 -.3	4.8	5.2 +.4	5.0 +.2	4.3 -.5	5.5	5.7 +.2	4.9 -.6	5.9 +.4
Soviet Union	5.3	5.8 +.5	5.1 -.2	4.7 -.6	5.3	6.0 +.7	5.0 -.3	4.8 -.5	5.3	5.6 +.3	5.8 +.5	4.5 -.8

TABLE 12

"VITALITY FACTOR"; ALL COUNTRIES AND AREAS

	ALL CHARACTERS				MALES				FEMALES			
	Mean for all char.	Mean scores and distances Teachers	Students	Others	Mean for all males	Mean scores and distances Teachers	Students	Others	Mean for all fem.	Mean scores and distances Teachers	Students	Others
United States	4.9	4.8 -.1	4.9 .0	4.9 .0	4.9	4.9 .0	4.9 .0	5.0 +.1	4.8	4.8 .0	4.9 +.1	4.8 .0
WESTERN EUROPE	5.1	5.0 -.1	5.0 -.1	5.2 +.1	5.2	5.1 -.1	5.1 -.1	5.3 +.1	4.8	4.8 .0	4.4 -.4	5.1 +.3
Great Britain	5.2	5.2 .0	5.2 .0	5.2 .0	5.3	5.2 -.1	5.5 +.2	5.3 .0	4.6	5.0 +.4	3.7 -.9	5.1 +.5
West Germany	5.2	5.2 .0	5.0 -.2	5.3 +.1	5.2	5.3 +.1	4.9 -.3	5.5 +.3	5.1	4.9 -.2	5.1 .0	5.2 +.1
France	4.4	4.1 -.3	4.3 -.1	4.7 +.3	4.3	3.8 -.5	4.2 -.1	5.0 +.7	4.5	4.7 +.2	4.5 .0	4.4 -.1
EASTERN EUROPE	5.0	4.9 -.1	5.2 +.2	5.0 .0	5.1	4.9 -.2	5.3 +.2	5.1 .0	5.0	5.2 +.2	5.0 .0	4.9 -.1
Poland	4.9	4.8 -.1	4.9 .0	5.0 +.1	5.0	4.8 -.2	5.1 +.1	5.0 .0	4.7	4.7 .0	4.4 -.3	4.9 +.2
Czech	5.1	4.9 -.2	5.5 +.4	4.9 -.2	5.2	4.8 -.4	5.4 +.2	5.5 +.3	5.0	5.4 +.4	5.6 +.6	4.0 -1.0
Hungary	5.1	5.1 .0	4.9 -.2	5.2 +.1	5.1	5.1 .0	5.0 -.1	5.2 +.1	5.0	5.0 .0	4.7 -.3	5.2 +.2
Soviet Union	5.2	5.6 +.4	4.5 -.7	5.4 +.2	5.5	6.3 +.8	4.8 -.7	5.5 .0	4.5	5.0 +.5	3.3 -1.2	5.3 +.8

TABLE 13

"MORALITY FACTOR"; ALL COUNTRIES AND AREAS

	ALL CHARACTERS				MALES				FEMALES			
	Mean for all char.	Mean scores and distances Teachers			Mean for all males	Mean scores and distances Teachers			Mean for all fem.	Mean scores and distances Teachers		
			Students	Others			Students	Others			Students	Others
United States	5.3	5.5 +.2	5.1 -.2	5.2 -.1	5.2	5.4 +.2	5.0 -.2	5.1 -.1	5.4	5.7 +.3	5.2 -.2	5.3 -.1
WESTERN EUROPE	5.5	5.7 +.2	5.3 -.2	5.4 -.1	5.4	5.6 +.2	5.3 -.1	5.2 -.2	5.6	5.9 +.3	5.4 +.2	5.6 .0
Great Britain	5.5	5.7 +.2	5.4 -.1	5.4 -.1	5.4	5.6 +.2	5.5 +.1	5.2 -.2	5.6	5.8 +.2	5.4 -.2	5.7 +.1
West Germany	5.6	5.9 +.3	5.4 -.2	5.4 -.2	5.4	5.7 +.3	5.3 -.1	5.2 -.2	5.8	6.3 +.5	5.5 -.3	5.6 -.2
France	4.9	5.1 +.2	4.7 -.2	4.9 .0	4.6	4.9 +.3	4.3 -.3	4.7 +.1	5.2	5.5 +.3	5.2 .0	5.0 -.2
EASTERN EUROPE	5.6	5.9 +.3	5.7 +.1	5.3 -.3	5.4	5.7 +.3	5.5 +.1	5.1 -.3	6.1	6.5 +.4	6.0 -.1	5.7 -.4
Poland	5.2	5.3 +.1	5.2 .0	5.0 -.2	5.1	5.2 +.1	5.1 .0	4.9 -.2	5.6	6.1 +.5	5.3 -.3	5.3 -.3
Czech	6.2	6.1 -.1	6.0 -.2	6.5 +.3	5.9	5.8 -.1	5.8 -.1	6.2 +.3	6.6	6.6 .0	6.5 -.1	6.7 +.1
Hungary	5.8	6.1 +.3	5.5 -.3	5.7 -.1	5.5	5.9 +.4	5.3 -.2	5.3 -.2	6.3	6.6 +.3	5.9 -.4	6.5 +.2
Soviet Union	6.2	6.9 +.7	5.6 -.6	6.1 -.1	6.4	7.0 +.6	5.6 -.8	6.6 +.2	5.9	6.8 +.9	5.8 -.1	5.2 -.7

TABLE 14

"STABILITY FACTOR"; ALL COUNTRIES AND AREAS

	ALL CHARACTERS				MALES				FEMALES			
	Mean for all char.	Mean scores and distances Teachers	Students	Others	Mean for all males	Mean scores and distances Teachers	Students	Others	Mean for all fem.	Mean scores and distances Teachers	Students	Others
United States	4.3	4.7 +.4	4.0 -.3	4.3 .0	4.3	4.6 +.3	4.0 -.3	4.4 +.1	4.3	4.8 +.5	4.0 -.3	4.2 -.1
WESTERN EUROPE	4.8	5.0 +.2	4.4 -.4	4.8 .0	4.8	4.9 +.1	4.5 -.3	4.9 +.1	4.8	5.2 +.4	4.3 -.5	4.8 .0
Great Britain	4.7	5.0 +.3	4.3 -.4	4.7 .0	4.8	5.1 +.3	4.6 -.2	4.8 .0	4.6	5.0 +.4	4.0 -.6	4.7 +.1
West Germany	5.0	5.2 +.2	4.7 -.3	5.1 +.1	5.0	5.1 +.1	4.7 -.3	5.1 +.1	5.1	5.6 +.5	4.7 -.4	5.1 .0
France	4.1	4.2 +.1	3.5 -.6	4.6 +.5	4.0	3.8 -.2	3.1 -.9	5.0 +1.0	4.3	4.8 +.5	4.0 -.3	4.2 -.1
EASTERN EUROPE	4.8	5.3 +.5	4.6 -.2	4.6 -.2	4.9	5.2 +.3	4.7 -.2	4.7 -.2	4.8	5.5 +.7	4.4 -.4	4.6 -.2
Poland	4.8	4.9 +.1	4.8 .0	4.8 .0	4.8	5.0 +.2	4.7 -.1	4.8 .0	4.7	4.5 -.2	4.9 +.2	4.8 +.1
Czech	4.8	5.4 +.6	4.6 -.2	4.2 -.6	4.8	5.3 +.5	4.8 .0	4.2 -.6	4.8	5.7 +.9	4.1 -.7	4.5 -.3
Hungary	4.6	5.3 +.7	4.2 -.4	4.4 -.2	4.6	5.2 +.6	4.2 -.4	4.5 -.1	4.8	5.9 +1.1	4.3 -.5	4.1 -.7
Soviet Union	5.3	6.2 +.9	4.2 -1.1	5.6 +.3	5.7	6.9 +1.2	4.2 -1.5	6.1 +.4	4.8	5.6 +.8	4.1 -.7	4.7 -.1

TABLE 15

"MANLINESS FACTOR"; ALL COUNTRIES AND AREAS

	ALL CHARACTERS				MALES				FEMALES			
	Mean for all char.	Mean scores and distances Teachers			Mean for all males	Mean scores and distances Teachers			Mean for all fem.	Mean scores and distances Teachers		
			Students	Others			Students	Others			Students	Others
United States	4.5	4.5 .0	4.3 -.2	4.6 +.1	5.2	5.2 .0	5.0 -.2	5.4 +.2	3.2	3.3 +.1	3.2 .0	3.2 .0
WESTERN EUROPE	4.3	4.6 +.3	4.1 -.2	4.3 .0	5.3	5.3 .0	5.1 -.2	5.5 +.2	3.0	3.3 +.3	2.8 -.2	3.0 .0
Great Britain	4.6	4.9 +.3	4.5 -.1	4.5 -.1	5.5	5.5 .0	5.4 -.1	5.6 +.1	3.3	3.4 +.1	3.1 -.2	3.3 .0
West Germany	4.1	4.6 +.5	3.8 -.3	4.0 -.1	5.1	5.2 +.1	4.8 -.3	5.3 +.2	2.7	3.1 +.4	2.4 -.3	2.6 -.1
France	3.9	4.0 +.1	3.8 -.1	4.0 +.1	4.9	4.6 -.3	4.6 -.3	5.4 +.5	3.1	3.7 +.6	2.7 -.4	2.8 -.3
EASTERN EUROPE	4.4	4.5 +.1	4.3 -.1	4.5 +.1	4.8	4.8 .0	4.6 -.2	5.0 +.2	3.6	3.4 -.2	3.7 +.1	3.6 .0
Poland	4.4	4.1 -.3	4.4 .0	4.6 +.2	4.6	4.3 -.3	4.6 .0	4.9 +.3	3.7	2.9 -.8	4.1 +.4	4.0 +.3
Czech	4.4	4.6 +.2	4.3 -.1	4.2 -.2	4.6	4.9 +.3	4.6 .0	4.3 -.3	3.7	3.8 +.1	3.6 -.1	3.7 .0
Hungary	4.3	4.6 +.3	3.9 -.4	4.4 +.1	5.0	5.3 +.3	4.3 -.7	5.4 +.4	2.5	2.7 +.2	2.8 +.3	1.9 -.6
Soviet Union	4.7	4.9 +.2	4.4 -.3	4.7 .0	5.0	5.6 +.6	4.6 -.4	4.8 -.2	4.0	4.3 +.3	3.3 -.7	4.5 +.5

TABLE 16

"GOODNESS SCALE"; ALL COUNTRIES AND AREAS

	ALL CHARACTERS				MALES				FEMALES			
	Mean for all char.	Mean scores and distances Teachers	Students	Others	Mean for all males	Mean scores and distances Teachers	Students	Others	Mean for all fem.	Mean scores and distances Teachers	Students	Others
United States	5.2	5.4 +.2	5.1 -.1	5.1 -.1	5.1	5.3 +.2	5.0 -.1	5.0 -.1	5.4	5.6 +.2	5.2 -.2	5.3 -.1
WESTERN EUROPE	5.5	5.7 +.2	5.6 +.1	5.2 -.3	5.4	5.4 .0	5.6 +.2	5.1 -.3	5.8	6.0 +.2	5.6 -.2	5.8 .0
Great Britain	5.5	5.7 +.2	5.4 -.1	5.3 -.2	5.3	5.2 -.1	5.5 +.2	5.1 -.2	5.7	6.0 +.3	5.3 -.4	5.7 .0
West Germany	5.8	5.9 +.1	5.8 .0	5.8 .0	5.7	5.8 +.1	5.7 .0	5.5 -.2	6.0	6.1 +.1	5.8 -.3	6.1 +.1
France	5.2	5.2 .0	5.5 +.3	5.0 -.2	4.9	4.9 .0	5.4 +.5	4.5 -.4	5.6	5.8 +.2	5.7 +.1	5.4 -.2
EASTERN EUROPE	5.6	5.7 +.1	5.7 +.1	5.4 -.2	5.3	5.4 +.1	5.5 +.2	5.1 -.2	6.0	6.4 +.4	6.0 .0	5.6 -.4
Poland	5.2	5.1 -.1	5.3 +.1	5.2 .0	5.1	5.0 -.1	5.2 +.1	5.1 .0	5.5	5.6 +.1	5.4 -.1	5.5 .0
Czech	6.0	5.7 -.3	6.0 .0	6.2 +.2	5.6	5.3 -.3	5.8 +.2	5.8 +.2	6.5	6.5 .0	6.6 +.1	6.5 .0
Hungary	5.7	6.1 +.4	5.6 -.1	5.4 -.3	5.4	5.9 +.5	5.4 .0	4.9 -.5	6.5	6.8 +.3	6.1 -.4	--- ---
Soviet Union	5.9	6.9 +1.0	5.2 -.7	5.7 -.2	6.2	7.0 +.8	5.1 -1.1	6.5 +.3	5.5	6.8 +1.3	5.8 +.3	4.0 -1.5

TABLE 17

"UNSELFISHNESS SCALE"; ALL COUNTRIES AND AREAS

	ALL CHARACTERS				MALES				FEMALES			
	Mean for all char.	Mean scores and distances			Mean for all males	Mean scores and distances			Mean for all fem.	Mean scores and distances		
		Teachers	Students	Others		Teachers	Students	Others		Teachers	Students	Others
United States	4.6	4.9 +.3	4.4 -.2	4.6 .0	4.5	4.7 +.2	4.4 -.1	4.4 -.1	4.8	5.1 +.3	4.4 -.4	4.8 .0
WESTERN EUROPE	4.2	4.4 +.2	3.9 -.3	4.2 .0	4.0	4.2 +.2	3.7 -.3	4.0 .0	4.5	5.0 +.5	4.1 -.4	4.5 .0
Great Britain	4.6	4.8 +.2	4.4 -.2	4.6 .0	4.4	4.6 +.2	4.4 .0	4.3 -.1	4.8	5.3 +.5	4.4 -.4	4.8 .0
West. Germany	3.5	3.9 +.4	3.2 -.3	3.5 .0	3.2	3.7 +.5	2.9 -.3	3.1 -.1	4.0	4.4 +.4	3.6 -.4	4.0 .0
France	4.4	4.5 +.1	4.7 +.3	4.1 -.3	4.0	4.0 .0	4.4 +.4	3.6 -.4	5.0	5.3 +.3	5.1 +.1	4.5 -.5
EASTERN EUROPE	4.7	5.0 +.3	4.3 -.4	4.7 .0	4.4	4.6 +.2	4.3 -.1	4.4 .0	5.1	6.0 +.9	4.4 -.7	5.0 -.1
Poland	4.5	4.3 -.2	4.7 +.2	4.5 .0	4.5	4.1 -.4	4.8 +.3	4.5 .0	4.9	5.6 +.7	4.6 -.3	4.6 -.3
Czech	5.0	4.9 -.1	3.9 -1.1	6.1 +1.1	4.6	4.3 -.3	3.8 -.8	5.6 +1.0	5.7	6.0 +.3	4.1 -1.6	7.0 +1.3
Hungary	5.1	5.7 +.6	5.0 -.1	4.5 -.6	4.9	5.4 +.5	5.1 +.2	4.1 -.8	5.6	6.4 +.8	5.0 -.6	5.5 -.1
Soviet Union	5.8	6.8 +1.0	4.9 -.9	5.7 -.1	5.8	7.0 +1.2	4.7 -1.1	5.8 .0	6.0	6.6 +.6	5.8 -.2	5.5 -.5

TABLE 18
"YOUTHFULNESS SCALE"; ALL COUNTRIES AND AREAS

	ALL CHARACTERS				MALES				FEMALES			
	Mean for all char.	Mean scores and distances Teach-ers	Stu-dents	Oth-ers	Mean for all males	Mean scores and distances Teach-ers	Stu-dents	Oth-ers	Mean for all fem.	Mean scores and distances Teach-ers	Stu-dents	Oth-ers
nited tates	4.9	4.3 -.6	6.0 +1.1	4.4 -.5	4.8	4.1 -.7	5.9 +1.1	4.3 -.5	5.1	4.6 -.5	6.0 +.9	4.6 -.5
STERN ROPE	5.0	4.2 -.8	6.1 +1.1	4.7 -.3	4.8	3.9 -.9	6.2 +1.4	4.2 -.6	5.3	4.8 -.5	6.0 +.7	5.2 -.1
at tain	5.1	4.4 -.7	6.2 +1.1	4.8 -.3	4.9	4.1 -.8	6.3 +1.4	4.4 -.5	5.5	5.1 -.4	6.0 +.5	5.3 -.2
any	4.9	3.9 -1.0	6.1 +1.2	4.6 -.3	4.6	3.7 -.9	6.1 +1.5	4.1 -.5	5.2	4.4 -.8	6.1 +.9	5.1 -.1
ce	4.9	4.3 -.6	6.1 +1.2	4.3 -.6	4.6	4.0 -.6	6.1 +1.5	3.6 -1.0	5.4	5.0 -.4	6.1 +.7	5.0 -.4
RN	5.1	4.0 -1.1	6.6 +1.5	4.8 -.3	4.9	3.5 -1.4	6.6 +1.7	4.6 -.3	5.9	5.6 -.3	6.6 +.7	5.5 -.4
	4.9	3.4 -1.5	6.3 +1.4	4.9 .0	4.7	3.1 -1.6	6.3 +1.6	4.6 -.1	5.5	4.7 -.8	6.4 +.9	5.5 .0
	5.4	4.5 -.9	6.8 +1.4	5.0 -.4	5.1	3.9 -1.2	6.7 +1.6	4.6 -.5	6.1	5.8 -.3	6.9 +.8	5.5 -.6
Hungary	4.9	3.9 -1.0	6.3 +1.4	4.4 -.5	4.6	3.4 -1.2	6.4 +1.8	4.0 -.6	5.9	5.7 -.2	6.1 +.2	--- ---
Soviet Union	5.1	4.5 -.6	6.2 +1.1	4.5 -.6	5.2	4.3 -.9	6.2 +1.0	5.0 -.2	4.8	4.6 -.2	6.3 +1.5	3.5 -1.3

TABLE 19

"STRENGTH SCALE"; ALL COUNTRIES AND AREAS

	ALL CHARACTERS				MALES				FEMALES			
	Mean for all char.	Mean scores and distances Teachers	Students	Others	Mean for all males	Mean scores and distances Teachers	Students	Others	Mean for all fem.	Mean scores and distances Teachers	Students	Others
United States	4.9	5.0 +.1	4.7 -.2	5.0 +.1	5.0	5.0 .0	4.7 -.3	5.2 +.2	4.7	4.9 +.2	4.6 -.1	4.6 -.1
WESTERN EUROPE	5.0	4.9 -.1	4.8 -.2	5.2 +.2	5.2	5.0 -.2	5.1 -.1	5.4 +.2	4.6	4.8 +.2	4.2 -.4	4.9 +.3
Great Britain	5.2	5.2 .0	5.0 -.2	5.3 +.1	5.3	5.3 .0	5.3 .0	5.3 .0	5.0	5.1 +.1	4.6 -.4	5.3 +.3
West Germany	4.8	4.9 +.1	4.6 -.2	5.0 +.2	5.3	5.0 -.3	5.1 -.2	5.8 +.5	4.1	4.4 +.3	3.8 -.3	4.2 +.1
France	4.4	4.1 -.3	4.2 -.2	4.9 +.5	4.3	3.7 -.6	4.3 .0	4.9 +.6	4.7	4.9 +.2	4.1 -.6	5.0 +.3
EASTERN EUROPE	4.8	4.7 -.1	4.6 -.2	5.2 +.4	5.0	4.8 -.2	4.9 -.1	5.3 +.3	4.5	4.7 +.2	3.9 -.6	4.9 +.4
Poland	4.7	4.1 -.6	5.1 +.4	4.9 +.2	5.0	4.3 -.7	5.3 +.3	5.3 +.3	4.0	3.2 -.8	4.6 +.6	4.2 +.2
Czech	4.5	4.8 +.3	4.3 -.2	4.3 -.2	4.8	4.8 .0	4.7 -.1	5.0 +.2	3.4	4.8 +1.4	3.4 .0	2.0 -1.4
Hungary	4.8	5.2 +.4	4.3 -.5	4.9 +.1	5.0	5.2 +.2	4.5 -.5	5.4 +.4	4.3	5.3 +1.0	4.0 -.3	3.5 -.8
Soviet Union	5.9	6.1 +.2	5.3 -.6	6.2 +.3	6.4	6.9 +.5	5.5 -.9	6.8 +.4	4.9	5.4 +.5	4.3 -.6	5.0 +.1

TABLE 20

"TRAGIC QUALITIES SCALE"; ALL COUNTRIES AND AREAS

	ALL CHARACTERS				MALES				FEMALES			
	Mean for all char.	Mean scores and distances Teachers	Students	Others	Mean for all males	Mean scores and distances Teachers	Students	Others	Mean for all fem.	Mean scores and distances Teachers	Students	Others
United States	3.9	3.9	3.9	3.9	3.8	3.8	3.7	3.8	4.2	4.1	4.3	4.1
		.0	.0	.0		.0	-.1	.0		-.1	+.1	-.1
WESTERN EUROPE	4.3	4.2	4.3	4.4	4.2	4.1	4.3	4.3	4.4	4.2	4.4	4.6
		-.1	.0	+.1		-.1	+.1	+.1		-.2	.0	+.2
Great Britain	4.3	4.1	4.3	4.5	4.2	4.1	4.2	4.4	4.3	4.0	4.4	4.6
		-.2	.0	+.2		-.1	.0	+.2		-.3	+ .1	+.3
West Germany	4.3	4.3	4.2	4.3	4.2	4.3	4.2	4.0	4.3	4.2	4.1	4.6
		.0	-.1	.0		+.1	.0	-.2		-.1	-.2	+.3
France	4.6	4.2	5.2	4.4	4.4	3.9	5.1	4.3	4.9	4.9	5.5	4.4
		-.4	+.6	-.2		-.5	+.7	-.1		.0	+.6	-.5
EASTERN EUROPE	4.2	4.1	4.0	4.6	4.2	4.1	4.0	4.4	4.3	3.9	4.1	4.8
		-.1	-.2	+.4		-.1	-.2	+.2		-.4	-.2	+.5
Poland	4.6	4.2	4.9	4.7	4.6	4.3	4.9	4.7	4.6	4.0	4.9	4.8
		-.4	+.3	+.1		-.3	+.3	+.1		-.6	+.3	+.2
Czech	3.8	3.8	3.4	4.3	3.6	3.8	3.3	3.7	4.1	3.9	3.5	5.0
		.0	-.4	+.5		+.2	-.3	+.1		-.2	-.6	+.9
Hungary	4.2	4.4	4.1	4.2	4.2	4.4	4.2	4.0	4.3	4.1	4.0	4.8
		+.2	-.1	.0		+.2	.0	-.2		-.2	-.3	+.5
Soviet Union	4.0	4.0	3.8	4.2	3.9	4.0	3.4	4.3	4.5	4.1	5.5	4.0
		.0	-.2	+.2		+.1	-.5	+.4		-.4	+1.0	-.5

TABLE 21

"SEX APPEAL SCALE"; ALL COUNTRIES AND AREAS

	ALL CHARACTERS				MALES				FEMALES			
	Mean for all char.	Mean scores and distances Teachers	Students	Others	Mean for all males	Mean scores and distances Teachers	Students	Others	Mean for all fem.	Mean scores and distances Teachers	Students	Others
United States	4.8	4.6 -.2	4.9 +.1	4.9 +.1	4.7	4.5 -.2	4.9 +.2	4.7 .0	5.1	4.9 -.2	5.1 .0	5.2 +.1
WESTERN EUROPE	5.0	4.6 -.4	5.3 +.3	5.1 +.1	4.8	4.5 -.3	5.0 +.2	4.8 .0	5.2	4.7 -.5	5.6 +.4	5.4 +.2
Great Britain	4.7	4.4 -.3	4.9 +.2	4.8 +.1	4.5	4.3 -.2	4.7 +.2	4.5 .0	5.0	4.6 -.4	5.2 +.2	5.1 +.1
West Germany	5.4	4.8 -.6	5.7 +.3	5.7 +.3	5.3	4.9 -.4	5.4 +.1	5.6 +.3	5.5	4.6 -.9	6.1 +.6	5.9 +.4
France	5.2	4.8 -.4	5.3 +.1	5.5 +.3	5.2	4.7 -.5	5.3 +.1	5.5 +.3	5.2	5.0 -.2	5.2 .0	5.4 +.2
EASTERN EUROPE	4.8	4.5 -.3	4.8 .0	5.0 +.2	4.6	4.5 -.1	4.7 +.1	4.7 +.1	5.0	4.5 -.5	5.2 +.2	5.4 +.4
Poland	4.6	4.2 -.4	4.7 +.1	4.9 +.3	4.5	4.3 -.2	4.5 .0	4.7 +.2	4.8	4.0 -.8	5.1 +.3	5.3 +.5
Czech	4.7	4.5 -.2	4.9 +.2	4.7 .0	4.5	4.5 .0	4.8 +.3	4.2 -.3	5.1	4.5 -.6	5.2 +.1	5.5 +.4
Hungary	4.8	4.5 -.3	4.7 -.1	5.3 +.5	4.7	4.4 -.3	4.6 -.1	5.1 +.4	5.3	4.9 -.4	5.0 -.3	5.9 +.6
Soviet Union	4.5	4.3 -.2	4.9 +.4	4.4 -.1	4.7	4.3 -.4	4.9 +.2	4.8 +.1	4.2	4.4 +.2	4.8 +.6	3.5 -.7

TABLE 22

"DEMOCRATIC QUALITIES SCALE"; ALL COUNTRIES AND AREAS

	ALL CHARACTERS				MALES				FEMALES			
	Mean for all char.	Mean scores and distances			Mean for all males	Mean scores and distances			Mean for all fem.	Mean scores and distances		
		Teachers	Students	Others		Teachers	Students	Others		Teachers	Students	Others
United States	4.4	4.6 +.2	4.4 .0	4.3 -.1	4.4	4.5 +.1	4.4 .0	4.2 -.2	4.6	4.8 +.2	4.4 -.2	4.6 .0
WESTERN EUROPE	4.6	4.7 +.1	4.7 +.1	4.3 -.3	4.4	4.6 +.2	4.6 +.2	3.9 -.5	4.8	4.9 +.1	4.8 .0	4.6 -.2
Great Britain	4.5	4.7 +.2	4.6 +.1	4.2 -.3	4.4	4.7 +.3	4.6 +.2	3.8 -.6	4.7	4.7 .0	4.7 .0	4.6 -.1
West Germany	4.8	4.9 +.1	4.8 .0	4.6 -.2	4.6	4.7 +.1	4.8 +.2	4.2 -.4	5.0	5.2 +.2	4.8 -.2	5.0 .0
France	4.2	4.2 .0	4.5 +.3	3.9 -.3	3.8	3.8 .0	4.0 +.2	3.7 -.1	4.8	4.9 +.1	5.3 +.5	4.1 -.7
EASTERN EUROPE	5.3	5.5 +.2	5.5 +.2	4.8 -.5	5.0	5.1 +.1	5.4 +.4	4.5 -.5	5.6	6.3 +.7	5.6 .0	5.0 -.6
Poland	4.9	5.1 +.2	4.8 -.1	4.7 -.2	4.8	5.0 +.2	4.8 .0	4.7 -.1	5.0	5.8 +.8	4.7 -.3	4.6 -.4
Czech	5.7	5.4 -.3	6.0 +.3	5.8 +.1	5.2	5.0 -.2	5.8 +.6	4.9 -.3	6.6	6.4 -.2	6.4 -.2	7.0 +.4
Hungary	5.2	5.6 +.4	5.5 +.3	4.4 -.8	5.0	5.4 +.4	5.7 +.7	4.0 -1.0	5.6	6.3 +.7	5.2 -.4	5.3 -.3
Soviet Union	5.4	6.5 +1.1	4.4 -1.0	5.2 -.2	5.7	7.0 +1.3	4.3 -1.4	5.8 +.1	5.0	6.1 +1.1	5.0 .0	4.0 -1.0

TABLE 23

"LEARNEDNESS SCALE"; ALL COUNTRIES AND AREAS

	ALL CHARACTERS				MALES				FEMALES			
	Mean for all char.	Mean scores and distances Teach-ers	Stu-dents	Oth-ers	Mean for all males	Mean scores and distances Teach-ers	Stu-dents	Oth-ers	Mean for all fem.	Mean scores and distances Teach-ers	Stu-dents	Oth-ers
United States	4.8	5.5	4.4	4.5	4.9	5.6	4.4	4.6	4.7	5.2	4.4	4.5
		+.7	-.4	-.3		+.7	-.5	-.3		+.5	-.3	-.2
WESTERN EUROPE	5.0	5.8	4.8	4.5	5.2	5.9	4.9	4.7	4.8	5.5	4.6	4.3
		+.8	-.2	-.5		+.7	-.3	-.5		+.7	-.2	-.5
Great Britain	4.9	5.6	4.7	4.4	5.1	5.8	4.9	4.6	4.6	5.1	4.4	4.3
		+.7	-.2	-.5		+.7	-.2	-.5		+.5	-.2	-.3
West Germany	5.3	6.3	5.0	4.7	5.4	6.3	5.0	5.0	5.2	6.2	5.0	4.4
		+1.0	-.3	-.6		+.9	-.4	-.4		+1.0	-.2	-.8
France	4.5	5.2	4.3	4.0	4.7	5.3	4.4	4.4	4.3	5.2	4.1	3.7
		+.7	-.2	-.5		+.6	-.3	-.3		+.9	-.2	-.6
EASTERN EUROPE	4.9	6.0	4.4	4.3	4.8	6.0	4.3	4.2	5.0	6.1	4.5	4.4
		+1.1	-.5	-.6		+1.2	-.5	-.6		+1.1	-.5	-.6
Poland	4.6	5.6	4.1	4.1	4.6	5.7	4.0	4.0	4.7	5.4	4.4	4.2
		+1.0	-.5	-.5		+1.1	-.6	-.6		+.7	-.3	-.5
Czech	4.9	5.9	4.4	4.4	4.6	5.9	4.4	3.5	5.3	6.0	4.4	5.5
		+1.0	-.5	-.5		+1.3	-.2	-1.1		+.7	-.9	+.2
Hungary	5.4	6.6	5.0	4.6	5.4	6.6	4.8	4.8	5.6	6.8	5.6	4.3
		+1.2	-.4	-.8		+1.2	-.6	-.6		+1.2	.0	-1.3
Soviet Union	4.8	7.0	3.8	3.7	5.0	7.0	3.5	4.5	4.8	7.0	5.3	2.0
		+2.2	-1.0	-1.1		+2.0	-1.5	-.5		+2.2	+.5	-2.8

TABLE 24

"HAPPINESS SCALE"; ALL COUNTRIES AND AREAS

	ALL CHARACTERS				MALES				FEMALES			
	Mean for all char.	Mean scores and distances Teachers	Students	Others	Mean for all males	Mean scores and distances Teachers	Students	Others	Mean for all fem.	Mean scores and distances Teachers	Students	Others
United States	4.5	4.6 +.1	4.4 -.1	4.5 .0	4.5	4.6 +.1	4.5 .0	4.5 .0	4.5	4.7 +.2	4.4 -.1	4.5 .0
WESTERN EUROPE	4.4	4.5 +.1	4.3 -.1	4.3 -.1	4.4	4.4 .0	4.3 -.1	4.4 .0	4.4	4.7 +.3	4.4 .0	4.2 -.2
Great Britain	4.6	4.9 +.3	4.5 -.1	4.3 -.3	4.6	4.7 +.1	4.7 +.1	4.3 -.3	4.6	5.3 +.7	4.2 -.4	4.3 -.3
West Germany	4.5	4.4 -.1	4.6 +.1	4.6 +.1	4.5	4.4 -.1	4.4 -.1	4.8 +.3	4.5	4.2 -.3	4.8 +.3	4.4 -.1
France	3.2	3.2 .0	2.9 -.3	3.4 +.2	3.1	2.8 -.3	2.7 -.4	3.8 +.7	3.4	4.0 +.6	3.1 -.3	3.1 -.3
EASTERN EUROPE	4.2	4.6 +.4	4.5 +.3	3.6 -.6	4.1	4.3 +.2	4.4 +.3	3.6 -.5	4.5	5.1 +.6	4.7 +.2	3.7 -.8
Poland	3.3	3.3 .0	3.2 -.1	3.3 .0	3.1	3.2 +.1	3.0 -.1	3.0 -.1	3.7	3.8 +.1	3.6 -.1	3.7 .0
Czech	4.9	5.1 +.2	5.4 +.5	4.3 -.6	5.0	5.0 .0	5.3 +.3	4.8 -.2	4.7	5.6 +.9	5.5 +.8	3.0 -1.7
Hungary	4.4	4.5 +.1	4.1 -.3	4.5 +.1	4.3	4.4 +.1	3.8 -.5	4.7 +.4	4.7	5.0 +.3	5.0 +.3	4.0 -.7
Soviet Union	5.1	5.2 +.1	5.5 +.4	4.5 -.6	6.2	7.0 +.8	5.7 -.5	5.8 -.4	3.5	3.6 +.1	4.8 +1.3	2.0 -1.5

TABLE 25

"PURPOSEFULNESS SCALE"; ALL COUNTRIES AND AREAS

	ALL CHARACTERS				MALES				FEMALES			
	Mean for all char.	Mean scores and distances Teachers	Students	Others	Mean for all males	Mean scores and distances Teachers	Students	Others	Mean for all fem.	Mean scores and distances Teachers	Students	Others
United States	5.5	5.6 +.1	5.5 .0	5.4 -.1	5.5	5.6 +.1	5.4 -.1	5.4 -.1	5.5	5.7 +.2	5.6 +.1	5.3 -.2
WESTERN EUROPE	5.6	5.8 +.2	5.4 -.2	5.7 +.1	5.7	5.8 +.1	5.5 -.2	5.8 +.1	5.6	5.7 +.1	5.3 -.3	5.7 +.1
Great Britain	5.8	5.9 +.1	5.6 -.2	5.9 +.1	5.8	5.9 +.1	5.7 -.1	5.9 +.1	5.7	5.8 +.1	5.3 -.4	5.9 +.2
West Germany	5.6	5.9 +.3	5.4 -.2	5.6 .0	5.6	5.9 +.3	5.3 -.3	5.6 .0	5.7	5.9 +.2	5.5 -.2	5.6 -.1
France	5.1	5.2 +.1	4.8 -.3	5.3 +.2	5.2	5.1 -.1	4.9 -.3	5.7 +.5	5.1	5.4 +.3	4.8 -.3	5.0 -.1
EASTERN EUROPE	5.5	5.9 +.4	5.2 -.3	5.3 -.2	5.5	5.7 +.2	5.2 -.3	5.6 +.1	5.4	6.2 +.8	5.3 -.1	4.7 -.7
Poland	5.2	5.4 +.2	5.1 -.1	5.1 -.1	5.3	5.4 +.1	5.0 -.3	5.4 +.1	5.1	5.4 +.3	5.3 +.2	4.5 -.6
Czech	5.9	6.0 +.1	5.3 -.6	6.4 +.5	6.0	5.9 -.1	5.3 -.7	6.8 +.8	5.7	6.4 +.7	5.3 -.4	5.5 -.2
Hungary	5.5	6.0 +.5	5.0 -.5	5.6 +.1	5.5	5.9 +.4	4.9 -.6	5.7 +.2	5.7	6.3 +.6	5.1 -.6	--- ---
Soviet Union	6.1	6.9 +.8	4.8 -1.3	6.5 +.4	6.1	7.0 +.9	4.7 -1.4	6.5 +.4	6.1	6.8 +.7	5.0 -1.1	6.5 +.4

Appendix IV-D

RELATIONSHIPS AMONG CHARACTERS

Certain relationships among the fictional and dramatic characters were summarized by tabulating answers to Form C, questions 59 - 70 (see Appendix VI-B). These questions called for information on the relationships of each analyzed character to up to three other characters in the story. These other characters were not limited to characters submitted to detailed analysis; they were to be those with whom the analyzed character had the most important relationships. The purpose of these questions was to extend the analysis of the social milieu of each analyzed character, and to provide additional information about the general nature of relationships among teachers, students, and others.

Because the most important relationships from the point of view of a certain character need not be reciprocal, and because not all characters related to an analyzed character were analyzed, relationships among the different roles are not necessarily "mirror images" of one another. For example, teacher-student relationships (as seen from the point of view of teachers) are not necessarily the reverse of student-teacher relationships (as seen from the point of view of students).

All figures are all-media totals. Table 1 summarizes the number and distribution of all relationships recorded (a grand total of 6,415), gives the average number of relationships per person by role and country, and indicates the percentage distribution of relationships between each role and all other roles.

Table 2 provides information about the nature of interrelations among teachers, students, and others in the U.S. sample. Table 3 contains the same information by areas, and Tables 4 to 8 by countries. These Tables deal with status, affective, and romantic characteristics of relationships among roles from the point of view of each role. Relative status was defined as a position of some authority in relation to the analyzed character in the context of the story; authority might derive from class, position, income, power, age, or any combination of these. The affective nature of the relationships (friendly, antagonistic, etc.) was also recorded as presented in the context of the story, as was the nature of the romantic relationship (if any). "Successful" romance was defined as a resolution of a romantic relationship mutually satisfactory to both partners, usually (but not necessarily) resulting in marriage or the prospect of marriage.

Table 9 gives further indication of the frequency of romantic relationships among characters in the different roles by country and area, and Table 10 suggests certain features of these relationships (among analyzed characters) by area. Data in these two Tables came from Form B, Question 37, and Form C, Question 78 (see Appendix VI-B).

TABLE 1

NUMBER OF RELATIONSHIPS RECORDED, AVERAGES PER PERSON, AND PERCENT OF INTERRELATIONS AMONG TEACHERS, STUDENTS, AND OTHERS[1]

	U.S.	WEST EUR. Total	Great Brit.	West Germ.	France	EAST EUR. Total	Po-land	Czech slov.	Hun-gary
All relationships	2,273	2,739	1,450	996	293	1,403	484	635	266
Ave. per person	2.2	2.3	2.3	2.4	2.3	2.5	2.2	2.7	2.8
Teachers' relationships (total)	697	926	453	339	134	418	92	215	111
Ave. per teacher	2.1	2.3	2.3	2.4	2.4	2.5	2.1	2.6	2.8
Percent with	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
teachers	23	28	29	26	28	21	10	20	32
students	30	21	17	28	16	33	49	32	21
others	47	51	54	46	56	46	41	48	47
Students' relationships (total)	870	876	399	385	83	731	228	422	81
Ave. per student	2.3	2.4	2.4	2.5	2.4	2.6	2.3	2.8	2.7
Percent with	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
teachers	24	18	16	19	19	17	21	12	28
students	43	34	33	32	47	39	35	43	32
others	33	48	51	49	34	44	44	45	40
"Others'" relationships (total)	706	946	598	272	76	254	164	16	74
Ave. per "other"	2.2	2.3	2.3	2.4	2.1	2.3	2.2	1.6	2.7
Percent with	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
teachers	33	25	23	25	36	19	11	25	35
students	26	21	19	27	17	30	36	25	19
others	41	54	58	48	47	51	53	50	46

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[1] These numbers and percentages apply to Tables 2 to 8. In those Tables, each set of interrelationships among teachers, students, and others is considered 100 percent, and is broken down according to the percentage distribution of status, affective, and romantic characteristics.

TABLE 2

STATUS, AFFECTIVE, AND ROMANTIC CHARACTERISTICS OF INTERRELATIONS AMONG TEACHERS, STUDENTS, AND OTHERS (IN PERCENTS); UNITED STATES

Of all relationships between teachers and	Teachers	Students	Others
	%	%	%
Status of those related to teachers was mostly			
lower (than that of teachers)	25	85	26
higher	34	2	14
equal, changing, not clear	41	13	60
Those related to teachers were mostly			
friendly, supportive (toward teacher)	58	59	65
antagonistic	14	10	10
neither, both, not clear	28	31	25
Those related to teachers were of the same sex	54	66	30
opposite sex	46	34	70
Romantically attracted, -ive	27	8	42
Romance was successful	13	4	21
unsuccessful	6	3	10
neither, both, not clear	8	1	11

Of all relationships between students and	Teachers	Students	Others
	%	%	%
Status of those related to students was mostly			
lower (than that of students)	4	15	5
higher	84	16	65
equal, changing, not clear	12	69	30
Those related to students were mostly			
friendly, supportive (toward student)	66	65	71
antagonistic	10	10	9
neither, both, not clear	24	25	20
Those related to students were of the same sex	58	44	52
opposite sex	42	56	48
Romantically attracted, -ive	9	46	16
Romance was successful	5	24	8
unsuccessful	4	13	6
neither, both, not clear	*	9	2

Of all relationships between "others" and	Teachers	Students	Others
	%	%	%
Status of those related to "others" was mostly			
lower (than that of "others")	11	67	21
higher	21	7	21
equal, changing, not clear	68	26	58
Those related to "others" were mostly			
friendly, supportive (toward "others")	64	67	51
antagonistic	9	7	20
neither, both, not clear	27	26	29
Those related to "others" were of the same sex	27	52	32
opposite sex	73	48	68
Romantically attracted, -ive	44	16	27
Romance was successful	23	9	18
unsuccessful	14	5	5 5
neither, both, not clear	7	2	4

*Less than 1 percent.

8

TABLE 3

STATUS, AFFECTIVE, AND ROMANTIC CHARACTERISTICS OF INTERRELATIONS AMONG TEACHERS, STUDENTS, AND OTHERS (IN PERCENTS); BY AREA

	UNITED STATES			WESTERN EUROPE			EASTERN EUROPE		
Of all relationships between teachers and	Teachers	Students	Others	Teachers	Students	Others	Teachers	Students	Others
Status of those related to teachers was									
lower (than that of teachers)	25	85	26	28	83	27	22	96	43
higher	34	2	14	30	7	21	28	3	22
equal, changing, not clear	41	13	60	42	10	52	50	1	35
Those related to teachers were									
friendly, supportive (toward teacher)	58	59	65	55	55	59	66	63	68
antagonistic	14	10	10	18	14	16	23	14	14
neither, both, not clear	28	31	25	27	31	25	11	23	18
Those related to teachers were of the									
same sex	54	66	30	63	60	36	65	73	51
opposite sex	46	34	70	37	40	64	35	27	49
Romantically attracted, -ive	27	8	42	18	16	42	16	2	18
Romance was successful	13	4	21	8	6	25	8	1	11
unsuccessful	6	3	10	6	9	13	8	1	3
neither, both, not clear	8	1	11	4	1	4	—	—	4
Of all relationships between students and	Teachers	Students	Others	Teachers	Students	Others	Teachers	Students	Others
Status of those related to students was									
lower (than that of students)	4	15	5	9	11	8	3	13	13
higher	84	16	65	82	13	58	90	12	67
equal, changing, not clear	12	69	30	9	76	34	7	75	20
Those related to students were									
friendly, supportive (toward student)	66	65	71	62	72	63	62	70	78
antagonistic	10	10	9	17	7	16	17	9	7
neither, both, not clear	24	25	20	21	21	21	21	21	15
Those related to students were of the									
same sex	58	44	52	62	48	39	65	58	46
opposite sex	42	56	48	38	52	61	35	42	54

(Continued)

(Table 3 continued)

Romantically attracted, -ive	9	46	16	19	44	30	7	20	21
Romance was successful	5	24	8	8	20	17	2	7	11
unsuccessful	4	13	6	10	15	9	3	10	6
neither, both, not clear	*	9	2	1	9	4	2	3	4
Of all relationships between "others" and	Teachers	Students	Others	Teachers	Students	Others	Teachers	Students	Others
Status of those related to "others" was									
lower (than that of "others")	11	67	21	22	54	22	12	60	26
higher	21	7	21	26	13	24	41	18	26
equal, changing, not clear	68	26	58	52	33	54	47	22	48
Those related to "others" were									
friendly, supportive (toward "others")	64	67	51	61	67	55	61	66	71
antagonistic	9	7	20	15	11	14	14	8	13
neither, both, not clear	27	26	29	24	22	31	25	26	16
Those related to "others" were of the									
same sex	27	52	32	30	40	41	49	49	43
opposite sex	73	48	68	70	60	59	51	51	57
Romantically attracted, -ive	44	16	27	48	36	35	22	23	29
Romance was successful	23	9	18	32	20	18	16	16	12
unsuccessful	14	5	5	13	11	12	2	3	12
neither, both, not clear	7	2	4	3	5	5	4	4	5

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*Less than 1 percent.

TABLE 4

STATUS, AFFECTIVE, AND ROMANTIC CHARACTERISTICS OF INTERRELATIONS AMONG TEACHERS, STUDENTS, AND OTHERS (IN PERCENTS); GREAT BRITAIN

Of all relationships between teachers and	Teachers	Students	Others
	%	%	%
Status of those related to teachers was mostly			
lower (than that of teachers)	28	83	28
higher	31	5	18
equal, changing, not clear	41	12	54
Those related to teachers were mostly			
friendly, supportive (toward teacher)	56	56	58
antagonistic	17	17	18
neither, both, not clear	27	27	24
Those related to teachers were of the same sex	65	65	36
opposite sex	35	35	64
Romantically attracted, -ive	18	13	40
Romance was successful	9	9	27
unsuccessful	7	4	10
neither, both, not clear	2	—	3
Of all relationships between students and	Teachers	Students	Others
	%	%	%
Status of those related to students was mostly			
lower (than that of students)	6	13	10
higher	79	12	54
equal, changing, not clear	15	75	36
Those related to students were mostly			
friendly, supportive (toward student)	65	70	73
antagonistic	16	13	12
neither, both, not clear	19	17	15
Those related to students were of the same sex	63	54	40
opposite sex	37	46	60
Romantically attracted, -ive	17	41	32
Romance was successful	11	18	20
unsuccessful	6	15	8
neither, both, not clear	--	8	4
Of all relationships between "others" and	Teachers	Students	Others
	%	%	%
Status of those related to "others" was mostly			
lower (than that of "others")	17	48	22
higher	28	13	23
equal, changing, not clear	55	39	55
Those related to "others" were mostly			
friendly, supportive (toward "others")	60	61	55
antagonistic	18	18	16
neither, both, not clear	22	21	29
Those related to "others" were of the same sex	29	39	41
opposite sex	71	61	59
Romantically attracted, -ive	50	36	34
Romance was successful	36	22	18
unsuccessful	12	8	11
neither, both, not clear	2	6	5

TABLE 5

STATUS, AFFECTIVE, AND ROMANTIC CHARACTERISTICS OF INTERRELATIONS AMONG TEACHERS, STUDENTS, AND OTHERS (IN PERCENTS); WEST GERMANY

Of all relationships between teachers and	Teachers %	Students %	Others %
Status of those related to teachers was mostly			
lower (than that of teachers)	27	87	25
higher	27	5	16
equal, changing, not clear	46	8	59
Those related to teachers were mostly			
friendly, supportive (toward teacher)	62	55	61
antagonistic	17	13	15
neither, both, not clear	21	32	24
Those related to teachers were of the same sex	59	62	38
opposite sex	41	38	62
Romantically attracted, -ive	19	16	36
Romance was successful	9	5	22
unsuccessful	4	10	12
neither, both, not clear	6	1	2

Of all relationships between students and	Teachers %	Students %	Others %
Status of those related to students was mostly			
lower (than that of students)	7	8	5
higher	88	10	61
equal, changing, not clear	5	82	34
Those related to students were mostly			
friendly, supportive (toward student)	59	76	57
antagonistic	19	3	20
neither, both, not clear	22	21	23
Those related to students were of the same sex	67	44	38
opposite sex	33	56	62
Romantically attracted, -ive	18	49	28
Romance was successful	7	20	14
unsuccessful	11	16	11
neither, both, not clear	--	13	3

Of all relationships between "others" and	Teachers %	Students %	Others %
Status of those related to "others" was mostly			
lower (than that of "others")	22	63	19
higher	24	9	23
equal, changing, not clear	54	28	58
Those related to "others" were mostly			
friendly, supportive (toward "others")	64	76	55
antagonistic	12	1	8
neither, both, not clear	24	23	37
Those related to "others" were of the same sex	33	41	40
opposite sex	67	59	60
Romantically attracted, -ive	42	36	36
Romance was successful	30	19	18
unsuccessful	10	15	13
neither, both, not clear	2	2	5

TABLE 6

STATUS, AFFECTIVE, AND ROMANTIC CHARACTERISTICS OF INTERRELATIONS AMONG TEACHERS, STUDENTS, AND OTHERS (IN PERCENTS); FRANCE

Of all relationships between teachers and	Teachers %	Students %	Others %
Status of those related to teachers was mostly			
lower (than that of teachers)	29	62	28
higher	37	19	39
equal, changing, not clear	34	19	33
Those related to teachers were mostly			
friendly, supportive (toward teacher)	34	52	56
antagonistic	29	10	13
neither, both, not clear	37	38	31
Those related to teachers were of the same sex	63	33	29
opposite sex	37	67	71
Romantically attracted, -ive	16	24	60
Romance was successful	5	—	28
unsuccessful	5	24	24
neither, both, not clear	6	—	8

Of all relationships between students and	Teachers %	Students %	Others %
Status of those related to students was mostly			
lower (than that of students)	25	15	18
higher	63	26	61
equal, changing, not clear	12	59	21
Those related to students were mostly			
friendly, supportive (toward student)	69	62	32
antagonistic	13	3	21
neither, both, not clear	18	35	47
Those related to students were of the same sex	38	44	32
opposite sex	62	56	68
Romantically attracted, -ive	31	41	32
Romance was successful	--	26	18
unsuccessful	19	13	7
neither, both, not clear	12	2	7

Of all relationships between "others" and	Teachers %	Students %	Others %
Status of those related to "others" was mostly			
lower (than that of "others")	44	54	33
higher	22	31	31
equal, changing, not clear	34	15	36
Those related to "others" were mostly			
friendly, supportive (toward "others")	59	77	53
antagonistic	7	8	17
neither, both, not clear	34	15	30
Those related to "others" were of the same sex	30	31	36
opposite sex	70	69	64
Romantically attracted, -ive	59	31	50
Romance was successful	22	15	14
unsuccessful	22	15	28
neither, both, not clear	15	1	8

TABLE 7

STATUS, AFFECTIVE, AND ROMANTIC CHARACTERISTICS OF INTERRELATIONS AMONG TEACHERS, STUDENTS, AND OTHERS (IN PERCENTS); POLAND

Of all relationships between teachers and	Teachers %	Students %	Others %
Status of those related to teachers was mostly			
lower (than that of teachers)	22	96	50
higher	22	4	13
equal, changing, not clear	56	--	37
Those related to teachers were mostly			
friendly, supportive (toward teacher)	44	44	53
antagonistic	44	13	16
neither, both, not clear	12	43	31
Those related to teachers were of the same sex	78	71	63
opposite sex	22	29	37
Romantically attracted, -ive	--	2	16
Romance was successful	--	2	11
unsuccessful	--	--	--
neither, both, not clear	--	--	5

Of all relationships between students and	Teachers %	Students %	Others %
Status of those related to students was mostly			
lower (than that of students)	9	27	14
higher	83	19	64
equal, changing, not clear	8	54	22
Those related to students were mostly			
friendly, supportive (toward student)	47	58	76
antagonistic	17	14	10
neither, both, not clear	36	28	14
Those related to students were of the same sex	70	48	48
opposite sex	30	52	52
Romantically attracted, -ive	2	33	24
Romance was successful	--	9	16
unsuccessful	2	19	5
neither, both, not clear	--	5	3

Of all relationships between "others" and	Teachers %	Students %	Others %
Status of those related to "others" was mostly			
lower (than that of "others")	11	66	28
higher	67	19	26
equal, changing, not clear	22	15	46
Those related to "others" were mostly			
friendly, supportive (toward "others")	39	63	70
antagonistic	17	8	10
neither, both, not clear	44	29	20
Those related to "others" were of the same sex	72	49	37
opposite sex	28	51	63
Romantically attracted, -ive	--	25	36
Romance was successful	--	15	14
unsuccessful	--	3	16
neither, both, not clear	--	7	6

TABLE 8

STATUS, AFFECTIVE, AND ROMANTIC CHARACTERISTICS OF INTERRELATIONS AMONG TEACHERS, STUDENTS, AND OTHERS (IN PERCENTS); CZECHOSLOVAKIA

Of all relationships between teachers and	Teachers	Students	Others
	%	%	%
Status of those related to teachers was mostly			
lower (than that of teachers)	40	97	49
higher	40	3	21
equal, changing, not clear	20	--	30
Those related to teachers were mostly			
friendly, supportive (toward teacher)	63	80	71
antagonistic	19	7	12
neither, both, not clear	18	13	17
Those related to teachers were of the same sex	72	71	48
opposite sex	28	29	52
Romantically attracted, -ive	14	--	16
Romance was successful	7	--	10
unsuccessful	7	--	3
neither, both, not clear	--	--	3

Of all relationships between students and	Teachers	Students	Others
	%	%	%
Status of those related to students was mostly			
lower (than that of students)	--	7	13
higher	98	9	73
equal, changing, not clear	2	84	14
Those related to students were mostly			
friendly, supportive (toward student)	66	75	78
antagonistic	22	8	6
neither, both, not clear	12	17	16
Those related to students were of the same sex	60	64	45
opposite sex	40	36	55
Romantically attracted, -ive	8	13	21
Romance was successful	2	4	8
unsuccessful	4	6	7
neither, both, not clear	2	3	6

Of all relationships between "others" and	Teachers	Students	Others
	%	%	%
Status of those related to "others" was mostly			
lower (than that of "others")	--	25	25
higher	40	50	50
equal, changing, not clear	60	25	25
Those related to "others" were mostly			
friendly, supportive (toward "others")	60	75	75
antagonistic	40	--	--
neither, both, not clear	--	25	25
Those related to "others" were of the same sex	40	50	88
opposite sex	60	50	12
Romantically attracted, -ive	40	25	13
Romance was successful	20	25	13
unsuccessful	--	--	--
neither, both, not clear	20	--	--

TABLE 9

STATUS, AFFECTIVE, AND ROMANTIC CHARACTERISTICS OF INTERRELATIONS AMONG TEACHERS, STUDENTS, AND OTHERS (IN PERCENTS); HUNGARY

Of all relationships between teachers and	Teachers	Students	Others
	%	%	%
Status of those related to teachers was mostly			
lower (than that of teachers)	--	91	27
higher	16	--	31
equal, changing, not clear	84	9	42
Those related to teachers were mostly			
friendly, supportive (toward teacher)	75	48	73
antagonistic	22	35	17
neither, both, not clear	3	17	10
Those related to teachers were of the same sex	53	83	48
opposite sex	47	17	52
Romantically attracted, -ive	22	--	23
Romance was successful	11	--	15
unsuccessful	11	--	4
neither, both, not clear	--	--	4

Of all relationships between students and	Teachers	Students	Others
	%	%	%
Status of those related to students was mostly			
lower (than that of students)	--	12	13
higher	87	15	41
equal, changing, not clear	13	73	46
Those related to students were mostly			
friendly, supportive (toward student)	74	77	81
antagonistic	9	4	6
neither, both, not clear	17	19	13
Those related to students were of the same sex	65	54	50
opposite sex	35	46	50
Romantically attracted, -ive	13	31	13
Romance was successful	9	23	9
unsuccessful	4	8	3
neither, both, not clear	--	--	1

Of all relationships between "others" and	Teachers	Students	Others
	%	%	%
Status of those related to "others" was mostly			
lower (than that of "others")	15	43	21
higher	23	7	21
equal, changing, not clear	62	50	58
Those related to "others" were mostly			
friendly, supportive (toward "others")	77	79	71
antagonistic	8	7	24
neither, both, not clear	15	14	5
Those related to "others" were of the same sex	35	50	47
opposite sex	65	50	53
Romantically attracted, -ive	35	14	18
Romance was successful	27	14	9
unsuccessful	4	--	6
neither, both, not clear	4	--	3

TABLE 10
ROMANTIC RELATIONSHIPS INVOLVING TEACHERS, STUDENTS, ALL MEDIA; BY COUNTRY AND AREA

	U.S.	WEST EUR. Total	Great Brit.	West Germ.	France	EAST EUR. Total	Po-land	Czech slov.	Hun-gary
Percent of stories depicting romance of teachers, students	% 77	% 77	% 79	% 70	% 91	% 54	% 49	% 61	% 45
Total number of relationships (100%)	N 276	N 333	N 174	N 117	N 42	N 128	N 38	N 71	N 20
Relationships (as percent of total) between:									
Teacher and teacher	13	10	12	8	10	16	11	21	15
Teacher and student	11	11	12	11	10	2	--	1	5
Teacher and other	33	35	36	24	62	16	11	17	25
Student and student	34	20	19	25	12	27	32	20	45
Student and other	10	24	22	33	7	39	47	41	10

TABLE 11
PERCENT OF CHARACTERIZATIONS AFFIRMING SELECTED PROPOSITIONS ABOUT ROMANTIC RELATIONSHIPS, ALL MEDIA; BY AREA

	United States			Western Europe			Eastern Europe		
	All	Male	Fem.	All	Male	Fem.	All	Male	Fem.
Desires romance but does not take the initiative									
Percent of teachers	4	2	8	10	6	19	8	3	20
students	5	2	10	8	9	7	15	16	12
others	4	3	6	7	3	12	20	26	10
Initiates romance (or is receptive to it)									
Percent of teachers	23	25	21	29	31	22	17	18	14
students	33	32	35	45	41	51	28	24	37
others	32	31	35	38	42	34	25	27	22
Loses out in romance									
Percent of teachers	8	7	9	10	9	14	10	10	10
students	11	10	12	11	11	12	10	10	11
others	7	8	7	15	14	15	7	5	10

Appendix IV-E

ELEMENTS OF DRAMATIC ACTION

Elements of plot and characterization common to most, if not all, fiction and drama are the basic ingredients of dramatic action; they make stories comprehensible and interesting. The analysis reported in this section dealt with such elements.

A story is generally an account of characters in action. Reasons (goals, values) causing or motivating the action are usually stated, or are inherent in the action itself. A problem, barrier, or difficulty standing in the way of a course of action provides the ingredient of tension or conflict. Action becomes a way of dealing with the problem. Means used to overcome the problem may succeed or fail, or may succeed in certain respects and fail in others, or may leave the problem unresolved.

Goals, barriers, means, and outcomes are, then, the basic elements of dramatic action analyzed in this section. Tabulations of the incidence of illegality and violence, and of the mood of the story endings ("happy," "unhappy," etc.) are also presented. All tabulations deal with observations recorded in response to Questions 47 to 58 and Question 77 of Form C (reproduced in Appendix VI-B).

Goals and values

Analysts recorded a primary goal when explicitly stated or clearly inherent in the character's actions. If a character held more than one identifiable goal or value, a second goal was also recorded. The average number of goals per analyzed character in each role and country can be seen in Table 1. The percentages of persons in each role and area who held no classifiable goal can be found in the top lines of figures on Tables 10 to 12.

Seventeen categories of goals and values were developed on the basis of previous studies and a pilot project for this study. Analysts could use these categories, and explain or add to them in the form of write-in responses.

The seventeen basic categories were grouped into four major types of goals: (1) those involving primarily the integrity, safety, expression, comfort, security, power, and gratification of the individual, named self-centered, individualistic goals; (2) those oriented primarily toward mutual satisfaction or the satisfaction of others, such as love, friendship, home, family, named affectionate and family-oriented goals; (3) intellectual and professional goals such as the search for truth, beauty, knowledge, creativity, productivity; and (4) goals involving problems of social morality such as justice, duty, public service, honesty, honor, and the quest for an ideal way of life or a better world. Table 2 presents the percentage distribution of all goals (both primary and secondary) by role and area into the seventeen basic categories and the four groups. All other Tables summarize results by the four major groups only.

In addition to the frequency with which different goals were held, a measure of relative goal emphasis was also computed by major goal groups. This is presented by roles and areas in Table 3. (See explanation under "A Measure of Emphasis" below.)

Barriers, problems

The major obstacle a character encountered in seeking a goal or value (either stated in the story or inherent in the action itself) was recorded as a primary barrier; if more than one, analysts recorded a second major barrier. The average number of barriers per analyzed character in each role and country can be seen in Table 1. The percentages of persons in each role and area who encountered no classifiable barrier can be found in the top lines of Tables 13 to 15.

Four broad categories of barriers were used: (1) problems posed by society, law, impersonal authority such as officials, superiors, employers, etc. acting as representatives of the state or of institutions, or obstacles imposed by social conditions themselves; (2) hardships or obstacles imposed by "nature," such as illness, exposure to the elements, other physical hardships; (3) difficulties created by other people acting as individuals, usually coming into personal conflict with the character; and (4) barriers stemming primarily from the self such as a feeling of inadequacy, fear, weakness, lack of ability or of knowledge in the character. (The underlined words are used to define the category in all Tables.)

A measure of relative emphasis on barriers encountered (explained below) is presented by roles and areas in Table 3.

Means used to achieve aims or overcome problems

The principal means typical of the character's actions or striving, and a second major type of goal-seeking or problem-solving activity (if any) were recorded from a list of seven categories of means. The average number of means observed per analyzed character in each role and country appears on Table 1. The percentages of persons who used no classifiable means can be seen in the top lines of Tables 16 to 18.

The seven categories of "means" were (1) hard work, perseverance; (2) luck, chance, fate, coincidence; (3) trickery, deceit, cunning; (4) knowledge, intellect, information; (5) charm, attractiveness, kindness; (6) force, power, firmness, discipline; and (7) persuasion, argument.

A measure of the relative emphasis on means used by characters (explained below) is presented by roles and areas in Table 3.

Illegality, violence

The number of characters committing any act explicitly recognized as illegal in the context of the story, and/or any violent act, and the number of characters subjected to illegal or violent acts (or both) were recorded. The results are presented as percentages of characters by role in countries and areas in Tables 3 to 9.

Outcome

Two types of "outcomes" were observed and recorded. One deals with the final result of the character's efforts to achieve the goals or values motivating the action. Some outcome ("success"; "failure"; or "mixed, uncertain") was recorded for every analyzed character. The results are presented as percentages of characters by role, country, and area.

The second type of outcome was the generally "happy" or "unhappy" (or "mixed, uncertain") ending or resolution of the story. Tables 22 to 24 present the distribution of such outcomes.

THE TABLES

All but the last three Tables in this section deal with characters in action. (Tables 22 to 24 present story "endings.")

The tabulations involving characters in action present findings in percentages (except for averages in Table 1 and emphasis ratios in Table 3) computed on two different bases: (1) percentages of types of acts and (2) percentages of characters committing certain types of acts. Tabulations of goals sought, barriers encountered, and means used, presented in Tables 2 to 9, express distributions as percents of acts committed (or, more precisely, of observations concerning acts committed). For example, the first column of Table 2 shows that of all primary and secondary goals pursued by teachers portrayed in the U.S. sample (who, according to Table 1, were observed as seeking an average of 1.8 different types of goals), 3 percent were goals of "safety, self-preservation," 23 percent were "intellectual and professional" goals, and so on. Or, according to the first column of Table 4, 17 percent of all goals sought by all teachers portrayed in the British sample sought "intellectual, professional" goals, etc.

On the other hand, illegality, violence, and outcomes in Tables 3 to 9, and all percentages in Tables 10 to 21, are based on the number of characters in each role and sex category who engaged in certain types of action. For example, the first column of Table 4 also shows that 16 percent of all teachers in the British sample committed some illegal act, or that 53 percent were successful in achieving their goals. Or, the first set of figures in Table 10 indicates that while 15 percent of all U.S. teachers encountered "society, etc." as primary barriers, 35 percent of those teachers who pursued goals of "social morality" (and who comprised 18 percent of all teachers) encountered "society, etc." as a primary barrier.

Averages, frequencies, and relationships of dramatic elements

The tabulations structure the presentation of the elements of dramatic action in three different ways.

(1) Table 1 presents the frequency of observations in categories in which one or more types of action per character could be recorded. The average number of goals, barriers, and means observed per character in each role is given by country and area. (The number of characters in each role and sex category can be found in Appendix III-B.)

(2) Tables 2 to 9 give frequencies of occurrence of all elements of dramatic action in percents of types of acts (observations) or in percents of characters, as explained above.

(3) Tables 10 to 21 are cross-tabulations designed to relate elements of dramatic action to one another. Dealing with primary goals, barriers, means, and outcomes only, each of these Tables holds one of the elements constant to inquire into the changing distribution of the others. For example, Table 10 asks the question: What barriers tend to be encountered, what means tend to be

employed, and what outcomes tend to be reached by characters who pursue different goals? The top line of figures gives the percent of teachers, students, and others in the U.S. sample who sought different primary goals. Then, considering each of these goal-groups 100 percent, the columns provide the percentage distributions of primary barriers encountered, primary means used, and outcomes reached by characters in the various goal-seeking categories. The effect of different barriers, means, and outcomes on the other elements of dramatic action are examined, in turn. All figures are all-media area totals.

A measure of emphasis

The distinction between "primary" and "second major" goals, barriers, and means, when observed by analysts, made it possible to compute for these elements a measure of relative emphasis. This measure is a ratio between percentages computed on the two different bases explained above. It is obtained by dividing the percent of characters who sought a certain primary goal by the percentage share of that same goal out of all goals (primary and secondary) sought by the same class of characters.

These ratios of relative emphasis are presented as the third line of figures in each goals, barriers, and means category (indicated by the abbreviation "Em") in Table 3. They have been computed for all characters in each role (not for male and female characters separately) by areas.

For example, the first figure in the top line of Table 3 shows that 27 percent of all goals (both primary and secondary) sought by all teachers in the U.S. sample were "self-centered, individualistic." Now the percent of teachers who sought such goals as primary was (as can be seen in the top line of Table 10) also 27 percent, yielding an emphasis ratio of 1.00 shown in the third line of Table 3 directly under the top figure. Continuing in the same column of figures, we see that 28 percent of goals sought by U.S. teachers were "affectionate, family-oriented"; such goals were pursued as primary goals by 27 percent of all U.S. teachers, yielding an emphasis ratio of .96 (third line), a negligible difference by itself. At any rate, an emphasis ratio of 1.00 indicates that the importance given to a certain type of goal, barrier, or means tends to be commensurate with its proportionate share of all such elements recorded. The higher the ratio above 1.00 the greater the tendency to emphasize that element proportionately more than its frequency of occurrence would warrant; the lower the ratio under 1.00 the greater the opposite tendency.

TABLE 1

AVERAGE NUMBER OF GOALS, BARRIERS, AND MEANS OBSERVED PER TEACHER, STUDENT, OTHER; BY COUNTRY AND AREA

		U.S.	WEST EUR. Total	Great Brit.	West Germ.	France	EAST EUR. Total	Poland	Czech slov.	Hungary
No. of characters.....		1041	1161	628	406	127	554	217	241	96
Goals and values										
Teachers	Total	1.8	1.9	1.7	1.9	1.9	2.1	1.8	2.4	1.9
	Males	1.8	1.9	1.8	1.9	1.9	2.2	1.9	2.5	1.9
	Females	1.8	1.9	1.7	2.0	1.9	2.0	1.3	2.3	2.0
Students	Total	1.8	1.8	1.9	1.8	1.9	1.9	1.6	2.2	1.9
	Males	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.9	1.5	2.2	1.9
	Females	1.8	1.9	1.9	1.8	2.0	2.0	1.8	2.3	1.7
Others	Total	1.8	1.9	1.8	1.9	1.9	1.9	1.7	3.5	1.9
	Males	1.8	1.9	1.9	1.9	1.9	1.9	1.7	3.8	1.9
	Females	1.7	1.9	1.8	2.1	1.8	1.9	1.7	3.0	2.0
Barriers, problems										
Teachers	Total	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.7	1.2	.8	1.5	1.2
	Males	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.7	1.3	.9	1.6	1.3
	Females	1.3	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.6	1.0	.4	1.2	.8
Students	Total	1.5	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.6	1.4	.9	1.6	1.6
	Males	1.5	1.3	1.2	1.3	1.6	1.4	.9	1.6	1.8
	Females	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.6	1.2	.7	1.5	1.3
Others	Total	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.5	1.1	1.1	1.5	1.2
	Males	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.5	1.2	1.1	1.5	1.2
	Females	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.4	1.1	1.1	1.5	1.0
Means to goals										
Teachers	Total	1.7	1.8	1.7	1.8	1.8	2.0	1.6	1.8	1.9
	Males	1.7	1.8	1.7	1.8	1.9	2.0	1.6	1.9	1.9
	Females	1.7	1.8	1.7	1.8	1.8	2.0	1.4	1.8	2.0
Students	Total	1.7	1.7	1.6	1.9	1.9	1.7	1.4	1.9	1.9
	Males	1.7	1.7	1.5	1.8	1.8	1.7	1.4	1.8	1.8
	Females	1.7	1.8	1.6	1.9	1.9	1.8	1.3	2.2	2.0
Others	Total	1.7	1.7	1.6	1.9	1.8	1.7	1.6	1.5	2.0
	Males	1.7	1.7	1.6	1.8	1.9	1.7	1.6	1.5	2.0
	Females	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.9	1.7	1.6	1.5	1.5	2.0

NOTE: These averages are presented for those elements of dramatic action for which the major occurrence of more than one type of characteristic action could be recorded. The total number of goals, barriers, and means recorded can be obtained through multiplying these averages by the number of characters in each role.

TABLE 2

GOALS AND VALUES MOTIVATING TEACHERS, STUDENTS, AND OTHERS (IN PERCENTS); BY AREA

Goals and values	UNITED STATES			WESTERN EUROPE			EASTERN EUROPE		
	Teachers	Students	Others	Teachers	Students	Others	Teachers	Students	Others
Self-centered, individualistic	Percent of all goals sought by characters in role								
Safety, self-preservation	3	3	3	3	7	5	2	4	8
Escape from law, guilt	1	2	2	1	2	3	*	2	1
Health, adjustment	1	1	1	2	1	2	2	1	3
Free expression, individualism	3	5	3	6	4	3	2	2	2
Material success, security	8	6	10	8	7	11	4	5	8
Comfort, leisure, pleasure	3	5	5	3	5	6	3	8	7
Power, domination	3	3	5	5	2	3	4	3	2
Adventure, thrill	1	5	3	2	5	4	1	8	4
Sex without love	*	1	2	1	4	1	-	*	2
Fame, popularity, prestige	1	7	4	2	2	3	5	5	6
Hatred, revenge, defiance	2	3	3	2	2	2	1	1	2
Total	27	41	41	35	41	43	24	39	45
Affectionate, family-oriented									
Love, friendship, belonging	16	30	21	21	31	27	10	18	15
Home, family, children	12	6	18	8	6	14	4	3	12
Total	28	36	39	29	37	41	14	21	27
Intellectual and professional									
Truth, beauty, knowledge, art, science, profession, productivity, creativity, learning									
Total	23	12	7	16	14	6	25	18	8
Social morality									
Justice, duty, public service	12	4	8	9	2	5	21	9	9
Idealism, way of life, better world	6	2	3	6	3	2	10	8	6
Honesty, honor	4	4	3	4	2	2	6	3	4
Total	22	10	14	19	7	9	37	20	19

NOTE TO TABLE 2: This is the only tabulation by the 17 goal categories analysts used to record their observations. One or two goals per character were recorded (see averages in Table 1). Percents were computed on the basis of total number of goals sought by all characters in each role classification. All other Tables present goals in the four major groups only (underlined in the Table above).

NOTE TO TABLE 3: Goals, barriers, and means are expressed in percentages of the total number of observations in a role (and sex) category, and in emphasis ratios. The first line in each category gives the percentage share of all observations in the role; the second line shows the corresponding percentages by males and females (within roles); the third line is the emphasis ratio (explained on page IV-E-4). Illegality, violence, and final outcome are expressed in percents of characters in role (and sex).

*Less than 1 percent.

TABLE 3

GOALS, BARRIERS, MEANS, ILLEGALITY, VIOLENCE, AND FINAL OUTCOME; BY AREA[1]

		UNITED STATES			WESTERN EUROPE			EASTERN EUROPE		
		Teachers	Students	Others	Teachers	Students	Others	Teachers	Students	Others
Goals, values sought										
Self-centered, individualistic	Tot.	27	41	41	35	41	43	24	39	45
	M-F	29 23	46 38	43 34	38 29	45 35	51 36	28 6	44 30	52 38
	Em	1.00	1.00	.98	.91	.80	1.02	.96	.97	1.09
Affectionate, family-oriented	Tot.	28	36	39	29	37	41	14	21	27
	M-F	25 34	31 43	33 49	23 42	32 45	30 55	11 26	16 32	23 36
	Em	.96	1.00	1.10	.86	1.13	1.00	.50	.71	.70
Intellectual, professional, science, art	Tot.	23	12	7	16	14	6	25	18	8
	M-F	24 19	13 11	7 6	19 10	15 14	6 4	24 31	18 18	7 10
	Em	1.04	1.08	.86	1.19	1.00	.50	1.36	1.17	1.37
Social morality, duty, honor	Tot.	22	10	14	19	7	9	37	20	19
	M-F	21 23	11 7	17 10	20 18	9 6	13 5	37 37	21 19	19 19
	Em	.82	.70	.71	1.16	1.14	1.22	.95	1.10	.84
Barriers encountered										
Society, law, impersonal authority	Tot.	21	16	16	25	25	22	28	24	29
	M-F	20 21	17 15	17 14	26 22	28 22	23 21	29 22	25 22	28 33
	Em	.71	.93	.75	.84	.84	.86	.89	1.00	.90
Physical hardship, illness, elements	Tot.	4	4	5	7	4	6	8	5	9
	M-F	6 1	4 4	4 6	7 5	4 4	6 6	7 9	5 3	8 10
	Em	1.25	1.00	1.00	.71	.75	.67	.87	.80	1.00
Other people, personal conflict	Tot.	54	51	62	47	46	48	50	48	45
	M-F	52 57	50 53	64 58	46 50	41 49	46 49	49 54	47 51	45 45
	Em	1.09	1.03	1.05	.96	.93	1.00	.78	.75	.51
Self, fear, weakness, inadequacy	Tot.	22	29	18	21	26	24	14	23	17
	M-F	22 20	29 28	15 22	21 23	27 26	25 24	14 15	23 25	19 13
	Em	.50	.72	.67	.67	.61	.54	.64	.82	.65
Means used										
Hard work, perseverance	Tot.	20	23	17	22	24	20	25	22	24
	M-F	19 20	27 16	17 17	22 21	26 21	21 18	23 31	23 21	23 26
	Em	1.05	1.39	1.29	1.22	1.25	1.25	1.28	1.31	1.25
Luck, chance, fate, coincidence	Tot.	7	10	8	10	17	11	4	20	11
	M-F	7 7	9 11	7 9	11 11	17 16	11 11	4 6	19 20	11 12
	Em	1.14	.80	1.37	1.10	.76	.91	1.00	.70	.63

(Continued)

(Table 3 continued)

Trickery, deceit, cunning	Tot.	9	14	15	7	10	11	16	9	10
	M-F	11 5	15 14	17 14	8 5	12 7	12 10	16 14	10 6	13 3
	Em	.55	.92	1.13	.86	1.30	1.18	.56	1.33	1.20
Knowledge, intellect, information	Tot.	20	12	10	15	8	7	28	22	12
	M-F	23 15	13 11	12 6	18 7	8 9	11 3	29 23	22 22	13 8
	Em	1.00	.75	.60	.93	.62	.86	1.10	.77	1.00
Charm, attractiveness, kindness	Tot.	16	21	20	19	23	27	11	14	23
	M-F	11 25	16 30	14 28	14 30	16 32	19 35	9 17	11 22	15 38
	Em	.93	1.00	1.15	.95	.91	.96	.45	.93	.56
Force, power, firmness, discipline	Tot.	15	11	15	12	7	11	8	9	14
	M-F	16 13	13 9	18 10	11 12	9 5	13 9	9 5	9 8	16 8
	Em	1.07	.90	.80	.83	.86	.72	1.12	.77	.93
Persuasion, argumentation	Tot.	14	8	15	15	11	14	9	4	7
	M-F	13 16	7 10	15 17	16 14	12 11	13 14	10 4	5 1	8 5
	Em	.71	.25	.27	.67	.63	.50	.67	.50	.71
Illegality and violence										
Committing:										
Illegal act	Tot.	12	11	16	20	20	21	6	14	12
	M-F	14 7	14 7	17 13	21 18	24 14	25 17	7 4	16 9	15 8
Violent act	Tot.	37	24	28	21	21	19	5	14	12
	M-F	41 30	25 22	23 36	23 17	28 11	24 14	5 4	18 4	14 10
Illegal and violent	Tot.	8	5	8	13	14	13	-	5	6
	M-F	9 6	6 4	8 9	14 8	18 9	17 9	- -	7 -	8 3
Subjected to:										
Illegal act	Tot.	22	12	16	11	10	8	8	5	14
	M-F	22 22	12 12	16 17	11 12	10 10	8 7	10 4	7 2	15 13
Violent act	Tot.	45	31	41	21	17	15	7	18	13
	M-F	49 38	35 24	43 39	22 18	21 13	19 10	8 4	22 9	14 13
Illegal and violent	Tot.	15	7	12	6	4	3	3	4	8
	M-F	16 13	8 5	13 11	6 8	3 4	4 3	5 -	5 -	8 8
Final outcome										
Successful, achieves goal	Tot.	68	68	65	57	53	59	53	61	42
	M-F	67 70	70 65	64 67	54 65	51 56	58 60	50 61	57 69	50 26
Fails to achieve goal	Tot.	10	10	13	14	15	17	19	19	29
	M-F	14 3	10 10	15 12	17 7	17 12	19 14	22 7	22 11	29 29
Mixed, uncertain	Tot.	22	22	21	29	32	24	28	21	29
	M-F	18 27	20 26	21 21	29 28	32 32	23 26	27 32	21 19	21 45

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[1] See note under Table 2.

TABLE 4

GOALS, BARRIERS, MEANS, ILLEGALITY AND VIOLENCE, AND FINAL OUTCOME; GREAT BRITAIN[1]

	Teachers			Students			Others		
	% of All	% of Males	% of Fem.	% of All	% of Males	% of Fem.	% of All	% of Males	% of Fem.
Goals, values sought									
Self-centered, individualistic	35	38	25	42	44	37	42	49	36
Affectionate, family-oriented	30	23	49	37	31	45	42	31	55
Intellectual, professional, science, art	17	21	10	16	16	16	6	7	4
Social morality, duty, honor	18	17	16	5	9	2	10	13	5
Barriers encountered									
Society, law, impersonal authority	20	24	12	19	25	12	17	20	14
Physical hardship, illness, elements	6	6	6	3	3	3	7	5	8
Other people, personal conflict	52	51	57	44	43	46	47	45	50
Self, fear, weakness, inadequacy	22	20	26	33	28	39	29	30	28
Means used									
Hard work, perseverance	20	20	20	29	31	27	21	23	19
Luck, chance, fate, coincidence	11	11	11	8	6	11	9	9	10
Trickery, deceit, cunning	7	8	6	8	12	7	11	11	10
Knowledge, intellect, information	12	15	5	11	10	11	6	10	2
Charm, attractiveness, kindness	22	17	33	23	19	29	26	20	34
Force, power, firmness, discipline	14	15	11	11	13	7	14	16	11
Persuasion, argumentation	15	15	15	9	9	8	13	11	14
Illegality and violence									
Committing:									
Illegal act	16	19	8	13	19	4	17	22	10
Violent act	19	21	13	16	25	3	15	22	7
Illegal and violent	12	14	7	11	16	3	10	15	5
Subjected to:									
Illegal act	11	11	12	8	7	10	6	7	4
Violent act	28	29	25	20	26	13	17	23	9
Illegal and violent	6	4	8	3	3	3	4	5	2
Final outcome									
Successful, achieves goal	53	50	61	61	57	69	42	50	26
Fails to achieve goal	19	22	7	19	22	11	29	29	29
Mixed, uncertain	28	27	32	21	21	19	29	21	45

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[1] Goals, barriers, and means are percents of the total number of observations in a role and sex category; illegality, violence, and outcome are percents of the number of characters in each category.

TABLE 5

GOALS, BARRIERS, MEANS, ILLEGALITY AND VIOLENCE, AND FINAL OUTCOME; WEST GERMANY[1]

	Teachers			Students			Others		
	% of All	% of Males	% of Fem.	% of All	% of Males	% of Fem.	% of All	% of Males	% of Fem.
Goals, values sought									
Self-centered, individualistic	36	35	37	43	48	37	44	53	33
Affectionate, family-oriented	25	23	33	38	31	47	42	30	58
Intellectual, professional, science, art	14	16	9	12	13	10	3	3	3
Social morality, duty, honor	25	26	21	7	8	6	11	14	6
Barriers encountered									
Society, law, impersonal authority	30	30	28	31	31	31	32	32	32
Physical hardship, illness, elements	6	7	2	3	4	2	4	7	1
Other people, personal conflict	46	44	52	46	41	52	48	47	49
Self, fear, weakness, inadequacy	18	19	17	20	24	14	15	13	18
Means used									
Hard work, perseverance	28	28	26	21	25	16	20	20	19
Luck, chance, fate, coincidence	10	9	12	26	28	22	16	18	14
Trickery, deceit, cunning	6	8	3	11	12	9	9	10	9
Knowledge, intellect, information	20	23	12	5	5	6	7	10	5
Charm, attractiveness, kindness	14	11	23	22	13	35	26	15	36
Force, power, firmness, discipline	7	7	8	4	6	1	7	10	5
Persuasion, argumentation	15	14	16	11	12	10	15	18	12
Illegality and violence									
Committing:									
Illegal act	26	23	33	25	26	23	30	33	27
Violent act	20	24	10	23	26	18	26	27	25
Illegal and violent	15	17	10	17	19	15	20	22	18
Subjected to:									
Illegal act	14	14	13	13	14	11	13	13	13
Violent act	18	20	13	17	17	16	18	13	23
Illegal and violent	7	8	5	5	3	6	5	4	5
Final outcome									
Successful, achieves goal	52	50	57	54	51	58	60	58	62
Fails to achieve goal	14	16	10	16	17	14	13	13	12
Mixed, uncertain	33	34	32	30	31	27	27	29	25

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[1] Goals, barriers, and means are percents of the total number of observations in a role and sex category; illegality, violence, and outcome are percents of the number of characters in each category.

TABLE 6

GOALS, BARRIERS, MEANS, ILLEGALITY AND VIOLENCE, AND FINAL OUTCOME; FRANCE[1]

	Teachers			Students			Others		
	% of All	% of Males	% of Fem.	% of All	% of Males	% of Fem.	% of All	% of Males	% of Fem.
Goals, values sought									
Self-centered, individualistic	38	41	29	31	33	29	48	56	40
Affectionate, family-oriented	29	23	40	37	35	39	35	19	49
Intellectual, professional, science, art	17	20	13	15	16	14	10	13	8
Social morality, duty, honor	16	16	17	17	16	18	7	12	3
Barriers encountered									
Society, law, impersonal authority	30	27	36	29	30	26	27	23	31
Physical hardship, illness, elements	8	9	6	5	3	9	5	4	7
Other people, personal conflict	36	38	33	41	36	48	49	54	45
Self, fear, weakness, inadequacy	26	27	24	25	30	17	18	19	17
Means used									
Hard work, perseverance	13	12	14	14	16	11	10	12	9
Luck, chance, fate, coincidence	8	10	8	13	11	15	9	9	9
Trickery, deceit, cunning	11	12	8	8	14	-	21	24	18
Knowledge, intellect, information	13	16	6	9	8	11	9	18	-
Charm, attractiveness, kindness	20	13	33	27	22	33	28	15	41
Force, power, firmness, discipline	16	12	22	8	5	11	8	9	6
Persuasion, argumentation	18	24	8	22	24	19	15	12	18
Illegality and violence									
Committing:									
Illegal act	25	28	20	29	35	21	24	24	25
Violent act	30	25	40	38	50	21	24	29	20
Illegal and violent	9	8	10	18	20	14	14	18	10
Subjected to:									
Illegal act	7	6	10	3	-	7	5	6	5
Violent act	18	22	10	24	25	21	5	6	5
Illegal and violent	7	6	10	-	-	-	-	-	-
Final outcome									
Successful, achieves goal	55	50	65	44	30	64	43	47	40
Fails to achieve goal	21	28	10	23	35	7	22	18	25
Mixed, uncertain	23	22	25	32	35	29	35	35	35

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[1] Goals, barriers, and means are percents of the total number of observations in a role and sex category; illegality, violence, and outcome are percents of the number of characters in each category.

TABLE 7

GOALS, BARRIERS, MEANS, ILLEGALITY AND VIOLENCE, AND FINAL OUTCOME; POLAND[1]

	Teachers			Students			Others		
	% of All	% of Males	% of Fem.	% of All	% of Males	% of Fem.	% of All	% of Males	% of Fem.
Goals, values sought									
Self-centered, individualistic	28	30	11	44	46	41	49	49	43
Affectionate, family-oriented	13	14	-	22	18	29	28	28	30
Intellectual, professional, science, art	28	25	56	11	11	9	6	5	9
Social morality, duty, honor	30	30	33	23	25	20	17	17	16
Barriers encountered									
Society, law, impersonal authority	22	24	-	26	28	22	38	34	45
Physical hardship, illness, elements	14	12	33	7	8	4	12	11	14
Other people, personal conflict	50	49	67	50	45	63	38	42	31
Self, fear, weakness, inadequacy	14	15	-	18	20	11	12	13	10
Means used									
Hard work, perseverance	22	19	40	16	18	11	20	18	24
Luck, chance, fate, coincidence	-	-	-	12	11	13	12	14	10
Trickery, deceit, cunning	9	9	10	14	15	13	10	14	5
Knowledge, intellect, information	36	37	30	18	20	15	14	16	10
Charm, attractiveness, kindness	13	14	10	14	9	24	23	16	34
Force, power, firmness, discipline	6	7	-	18	16	22	11	12	10
Persuasion, argumentation	15	15	10	8	11	2	10	11	7
Illegality and violence									
Committing:									
Illegal act	12	11	14	15	15	15	13	14	11
Violent act	5	3	14	19	25	6	10	11	7
Illegal and violent	-	-	-	5	7	-	6	7	4
Subjected to:									
Illegal act	5	6	-	-	-	-	6	7	4
Violent act	5	3	14	21	27	9	10	9	11
Illegal and violent	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	4
Final outcome									
Successful, achieves goal	33	33	29	38	35	43	37	46	22
Fails to achieve goal	21	22	14	23	27	14	31	35	26
Mixed, uncertain	46	44	57	40	38	43	31	20	52

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[1] Goals, barriers, and means are percents of the total number of observations in a role and sex category; illegality, violence, and outcome are percents of the number of characters in each category.

TABLE 8

GOALS, BARRIERS, MEANS, ILLEGALITY AND VIOLENCE, AND FINAL OUTCOME; HUNGARY[1]

	Teachers			Students			Others		
	% of All	% of Males	% of Fem.	% of All	% of Males	% of Fem.	% of All	% of Males	% of Fem.
Goals, values sought									
Self-centered, individualistic	19	24	-	27	33	6	58	59	49
Affectionate, family-oriented	17	8	44	26	20	44	22	20	28
Intellectual, professional, science, art	22	20	28	19	17	25	2	3	-
Social, morality, duty, honor	43	48	28	29	29	25	18	18	21
Barriers, encountered									
Society, law, impersonal authority	44	44	43	37	35	42	31	36	14
Physical hardship, illness, elements	4	5	-	8	11	-	-	-	-
Other people, personal conflict	33	33	29	37	38	33	44	36	72
Self, fear, weakness, inadequacy	20	18	29	18	16	25	25	28	14
Means used									
Hard work, perseverance	39	39	39	30	29	33	30	28	36
Luck, chance, fate, coincidence	1	-	6	11	13	6	11	8	21
Trickery, deceit, cunning	5	7	-	9	13	-	11	15	-
Knowledge, intellect, information	24	30	6	14	11	22	6	5	7
Charm, attractiveness, kindness	12	5	33	20	13	33	20	15	36
Force, power, firmness, discipline	8	5	17	14	18	6	19	25	-
Persuasion, argumentation	11	14	-	2	3	-	4	5	-
Illegality and violence									
Committing:									
Illegal act	10	13	-	27	38	-	15	20	-
Violent act	3	3	-	10	14	-	7	10	-
Illegal *and* violent	-	-	-	7	10	-	7	10	-
Subjected to:									
Illegal act	28	30	2	20	29	-	26	20	43
Violent act	10	13	-	13	19	-	19	20	14
Illegal *and* violent	13	17	-	17	24	-	19	15	29
Final outcome									
Successful, achieves goal	56	50	77	60	48	88	48	60	14
Fails to achieve goal	26	33	-	17	24	-	30	25	43
Mixed, uncertain	18	17	22	23	29	11	22	15	43

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[1] Goals, barriers, and means are percents of the total number of *observations* in a role and sex category; illegality, violence, and outcome are percents of the number of *characters* in each category.

TABLE 9

GOALS, BARRIERS, MEANS, ILLEGALITY AND VIOLENCE, AND FINAL OUTCOME; CZECHOSLOVAKIA[1]

	Teachers			Students			Others		
	% of All	% of Males	% of Fem.	% of All	% of Males	% of Fem.	% of All	% of Males	% of Fem.
Goals, values sought									
Self-centered, individualistic	25	32	8	42	48	27	28	43	-
Affectionate, family-oriented	13	9	24	20	14	32	29	13	58
Intellectual, professional, science, art	25	24	28	21	21	22	23	22	25
Social morality, duty, honor	37	35	40	17	17	19	20	22	17
Barriers encountered									
Society, law, impersonal authority	24	25	19	20	21	17	7	-	17
Physical hardship, illness, elements	7	7	10	3	3	3	7	11	-
Other people, personal conflict	57	56	58	50	50	51	67	67	67
Self, fear, weakness, inadequacy	12	12	13	26	25	29	20	22	17
Means used									
Hard work, perseverance	24	21	31	24	25	23	33	44	17
Luck, chance, fate, coincidence	9	8	11	26	25	27	-	-	-
Trickery, deceit, cunning	8	10	2	6	7	3	-	-	-
Knowledge, intellect, information	31	29	33	25	25	26	20	33	-
Charm, attractiveness, kindness	12	10	16	14	11	19	33	11	67
Force, power, firmness, discipline	10	14	2	3	4	1	13	11	17
Persuasion, argumentation	7	7	4	2	3	1	-	-	-
Illegality and violence									
Committing:									
Illegal act	2	2	4	9	10	7	-	-	-
Violent act	5	5	4	8	11	2	30	33	25
Illegal and violent	-	-	-	3	4	-	-	-	-
Subjected to:									
Illegal act	2	3	-	7	8	5	40	50	25
Violent act	6	7	4	17	20	9	20	2	25
Illegal and violent	1	2	-	4	6	-	20	30	-
Final outcome									
Successful, achieves goal	61	60	64	76	72	86	60	50	75
Fails to achieve goal	14	17	8	16	18	12	10	-	25
Mixed, uncertain	24	22	28	7	9	2	30	50	-

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[1] Goals, barriers, and means are percents of the total number of observations in a role and sex category; illegality, violence, and outcome are percents of the number of characters in each category.

TABLE 10

BARRIERS, MEANS, AND OUTCOMES OF CHARACTERS WHO SOUGHT DIFFERENT GOALS; UNITED STATES

Characters who sought primary goals...	TEACHERS						STUDENTS						OTHERS					
	All	SC	AF	IP	SM	NO	All	SC	AF	IP	SM	NO	All	SC	AF	IP	SM	NO
	100%	27	27	24	18	4	100%	41	36	13	7	3	100%	38	42	6	10	4
Encountered primary barriers:	All	SC	AF	IP	SM		All	SC	AF	IP	SM		All	SC	AF	IP	SM	
Society, law, impersonal authority	15	14	10	9	35		15	18	9	27	7		12	9	9	10	35	
Physical hardship, illness, elements	5	18	2	-	-		4	5	5	-	-		5	6	6	-	-	
Other people, personal conflict	59	39	72	70	64		53	45	63	54	57		65	61	71	70	53	
Self, fear, weakness, inadequacy	11	14	12	11	1		21	26	17	15	36		12	14	13	-	-	
None, other	10	15	4	10	-		7	6	6	4	-		6	10	1	20	12	
Total:	All	totals		100%			All	totals		100%			All	totals		100%		
Used primary means:	All	SC	AF	IP	SM		All	SC	AF	IP	SM		All	SC	AF	IP	SM	
Hard work, perseverance	21	25	18	22	20		32	30	27	46	57		23	19	24	40	29	
Luck, chance, fate, coincidence	8	12	10	4	6		8	8	8	8	-		11	14	11	-	6	
Trickery, deceit, cunning	5	15	2	2	6		13	23	7	-	14		17	25	9	-	29	
Knowledge, intellect, information	20	8	10	47	15		8	3	3	31	14		6	4	3	-	23	
Charm, attractiveness, kindness	15	15	29	6	15		21	14	41	4	-		23	18	35	20	-	
Force, power, firmness, discipline	16	15	14	18	18		10	12	9	4	14		12	10	8	20	12	
Persuasion, argumentation	10	10	16	-	20		2	1	4	-	-		4	5	4	10	-	
None, other	5	-	1	1	-		6	9	1	7	1		4	5	6	10	1	
Total:	All	totals		100%			All	totals		100%			All	totals		100%		
Reached final outcome:	All	SC	AF	IP	SM		All	SC	AF	IP	SM		All	SC	AF	IP	SM	
Successful, achieves goal	68	65	71	82	73		68	68	72	63	100		65	64	64	90	69	
Fails to achieve goal	10	16	8	7	15		10	14	5	11	-		13	10	10	-	12	
Mixed, uncertain	22	19	21	11	12		22	18	23	26	-		22	26	26	10	19	
Total:	All	totals		100%			All	totals		100%			All	totals		100%		

Key to abbreviation of goals:

SC	Self-centered, individualistic
AF	Affectionate, family-oriented
IP	Intellectual, professional, science, art
SM	Social morality, duty, honor
NO	None, other

NOTE: All figures are percents of characters in role.

TABLE 11

BARRIERS, MEANS, AND OUTCOMES OF CHARACTERS WHO SOUGHT DIFFERENT GOALS; WESTERN EUROPE

Characters who sought primary goals...	TEACHERS						STUDENTS						OTHERS					
	All	SC	AF	IP	SM	NO	All	SC	AF	IP	SM	NO	All	SC	AF	IP	SM	NO
	100%	32	25	19	22	2	100%	33	42	14	8	3	100%	44	41	3	11	1
Encountered primary barriers:	All	SC	AF	IP	SM		All	SC	AF	IP	SM		All	SC	AF	IP	SM	
Society, law, impersonal authority	21	22	15	21	29		21	25	19	16	24		19	23	13	14	28	
Physical hardship, illness, elements	5	6	7	3	1		3	4	1	6	3		4	2	6	14	2	
Other people, personal conflict	45	42	53	39	47		43	38	57	18	45		48	44	54	29	41	
Self, fear, weakness, inadequacy	14	18	10	19	8		16	14	13	26	14		13	15	12	21	7	
None, other	15	12	15	18	15		17	19	10	34	14		16	16	15	22	22	
Total:	All totals 100%						All totals 100%						All totals 100%					
Used primary means:	All	SC	AF	IP	SM		All	SC	AF	IP	SM		All	SC	AF	IP	SM	
Hard work, perseverance	27	22	20	40	30		30	23	24	69	23		25	26	16	57	42	
Luck, chance, fate, coincidence	11	12	12	9	8		13	21	12	6	3		10	12	10	-	2	
Trickery, deceit, cunning	6	18	2	-	1		13	24	7	4	7		13	24	4	7	5	
Knowledge, intellect, information	14	6	6	31	19		5	4	3	10	17		6	6	2	21	14	
Charm, attractiveness, kindness	18	12	39	8	13		21	9	38	4	17		26	12	47	-	9	
Force, power, firmness, discipline	10	15	2	3	18		6	8	3	2	23		8	9	6	-	14	
Persuasion, argumentation	10	9	14	5	9		7	6	10	-	10		7	6	7	7	12	
None, other	4	6	5	4	2		5	5	3	5	-		5	5	8	8	2	
Total:	All totals 100 %						All totals 100%						All totals 100%					
Reached final outcome:	All	SC	AF	IP	SM		All	SC	AF	IP	SM		All	SC	AF	IP	SM	
Successful, achieves goal	57	40	77	60	60		53	39	58	69	62		59	44	69	71	77	
Fails to achieve goal	14	25	6	13	9		15	18	15	12	17		17	24	11	-	12	
Mixed, uncertain	29	35	17	27	31		32	43	27	19	21		24	32	20	29	11	
Total:	All totals 100%						All totals 100%						All totals 100%					

Key to abbreviation of goals:

SC Self-centered, individualistic
AF Affectionate, family-oriented
IP Intellectual, professional, science, art
SM Social morality, duty, honor
NO None, other

NOTE: All figures are percents of characters in role.

TABLE 12

BARRIERS, MEANS, AND OUTCOMES OF CHARACTERS WHO SOUGHT DIFFERENT GOALS; EASTERN EUROPE

Characters who sought primary goals...	TEACHERS All	SC	AF	IP	SM	NO	STUDENTS All	SC	AF	IP	SM	NO	OTHERS All	SC	AF	IP	SM	NO
	100%	23	7	34	35	*	100%	38	15	21	22	4	100%	49	19	11	16	5
Encountered primary barriers:	All	SC	AF	IP	SM		All	SC	AF	IP	SM		All	SC	AF	IP	SM	
Society, law, impersonal authority	25	19	10	14	42		24	21	17	23	41		26	33	16	-	41	
Physical hardship, illness, elements	7	8	30	5	3		4	6	7	-	3		9	4	16	18	12	
Other people, personal conflict	39	38	30	56	26		36	32	52	37	37		23	16	37	36	18	
Self, fear, weakness, inadequacy	9	22	10	4	5		19	26	12	29	7		11	12	16	-	6	
None, other	20	13	20	21	24		17	15	12	11	12		31	35	15	46	23	
Total:	All totals 100%						All totals 100%						All totals 100%					
Used primary means:	All	SC	AF	IP	SM		All	SC	AF	IP	SM		All	SC	AF	IP	SM	
Hard work, perseverance	32	14	18	32	47		29	17	10	52	44		30	27	30	27	31	
Luck, chance, fate, coincidence	4	6	9	3	4		14	20	20	6	5		7	11	5	-	6	
Trickery, deceit, cunning	9	46	-	-	-		12	25	7	2	2		12	20	5	-	12	
Knowledge, intellect, information	31	9	9	53	27		17	7	15	24	27		12	9	5	64	-	
Charm, attractiveness, kindness	5	-	36	5	2		13	19	27	6	5		13	14	35	-	6	
Force, power, firmness, discipline	9	20	-	3	9		7	6	7	7	14		13	16	-	9	25	
Persuasion, argumentation	6	6	-	2	11		2	1	5	2	2		5	2	-	-	19	
None, other	4	-	28	2	-		6	5	9	1	1		8	1	20	-	1	
Total:	All totals 100%						All totals 100%						All totals 100%					
Reached final outcome:	All	SC	AF	IP	SM		All	SC	AF	IP	SM		All	SC	AF	IP	SM	
Successful, achieves goal	53	22	50	74	56		61	54	57	77	66		42	34	40	64	53	
Fails to achieve goal	19	51	-	4	14		19	21	22	12	15		29	28	45	18	12	
Mixed, uncertain	28	27	50	22	30		20	25	21	11	19		29	38	15	18	35	
Total:	All totals 100%						All totals 100%						All totals 100%					

Key to abbreviation of goals:

SC	Self-centered, individualistic
AF	Affectionate, family-oriented
IP	Intellectual, professional, science, art
SM	Social morality, duty, honor
NO	None, other

NOTE: All figures are percents of characters in role.

TABLE 13

GOALS, MEANS, AND OUTCOMES OF CHARACTERS WHO ENCOUNTERED DIFFERENT BARRIERS; UNITED STATES

Characters who encountered primary barriers......	TEACHERS						STUDENTS						OTHERS					
	All	SO	PH	OP	SE	NO	All	SO	PH	OP	SE	NO	All	SO	PH	OP	SE	NO
	100%	15	5	59	11	10	100%	15	4	53	21	7	100%	12	5	65	12	6
Sought primary goals:	All	SO	PH	OP	SE		All	SO	PH	OP	SE		All	SO	PH	OP	SE	
Self-centered, individualistic	27	29	90	18	33		41	48	50	34	48		38	32	44	37	45	
Affectionate, family-oriented	27	18	10	33	33		36	23	50	43	32		42	32	44	47	45	
Intellectual, professional, science, art	24	14	-	29	24		13	23	-	13	9		6	5	-	6	-	
Social morality, duty, honor	18	39	-	18	10		7	3	-	7	11		10	32	-	8	10	
None, other	4	-	-	2	-		3	3	-	3	-		4	-	12	2	-	
Total:	All totals 100%						All totals 100%						All totals 100%					
Used primary means:	All	SO	PH	OP	SE		All	SO	PH	OP	SE		All	SO	PH	OP	SE	
Hard work, perseverance	21	25	50	18	24		32	26	87	33	34		23	35	44	19	20	
Luck, chance, fate, coincidence	8	14	10	5	19		8	6	-	9	9		11	15	11	8	20	
Trickery, deceit, cunning	5	11	-	6	-		13	19	-	13	9		17	25	-	19	10	
Knowledge, intellect, information	20	18	40	20	9		8	10	-	9	7		6	10	11	5	-	
Charm, attractiveness, kindness	15	11	-	19	9		21	16	-	18	29		23	5	34	26	20	
Force, power, firmness, discipline	16	7	-	18	29		10	19	-	12	4		12	5	-	15	10	
Persuasion, argumentation	10	14	-	11	10		2	-	-	4	-		4	5	-	5	10	
None, other	5	-	-	3	-		6	4	13	2	8		4	-	-	3	10	
Total:	All totals 100%						All totals 100%						All totals 100%					
Reached final outcome:	All	SO	PH	OP	SE		All	SO	PH	OP	SE		All	SO	PH	OP	SE	
Successful, achieves goal	68	57	90	78	76		68	77	67	69	75		65	75	78	63	60	
Fails to achieve goal	10	18	10	10	14		10	10	22	10	9		13	10	22	13	13	
Mixed, uncertain	22	25	-	12	10		22	13	11	21	16		22	15	-	24	27	
Total:	All totals 100%						All totals 100%						All totals 100%					

Key to abbreviation of barriers:

SO Society, law, impersonal authority
PH Physical hardship, illness, elements
OP Other people, personal conflict
SE Self, fear, weakness, inadequacy
NO None, other

NOTE: All figures are percents of characters in role.

TABLE 14

GOALS, MEANS, AND OUTCOMES OF CHARACTERS WHO ENCOUNTERED DIFFERENT BARRIERS; WESTERN EUROPE

Characters who encountered	TEACHERS						STUDENTS						OTHERS					
primary barriers......	All	SO	PH	OP	SE	NO	All	SO	PH	OP	SE	NO	All	SO	PH	OP	SE	NO
	100%	21	5	45	14	15	100%	21	3	43	16	17	100%	19	4	48	13	16
Sought primary goals:	All	SO	PH	OP	SE		All	SO	PH	OP	SE		All	SO	PH	OP	SE	
Self-centered, individualistic	32	33	39	30	42		33	41	42	29	30		44	55	24	41	50	
Affectionate, family-oriented	25	18	39	30	18		42	38	17	56	34		41	27	59	47	37	
Intellectual, professional, science, art	19	19	11	17	27		14	11	25	6	23		3	3	12	2	6	
Social morality, duty, honor	22	29	5	23	13		8	9	8	8	7		11	16	6	9	6	
None, other	2	1	6	-	-		3	1	8	1	6		1	-	-	*	2	
Total:	All	totals		100%			All	totals		100%			All	totals		100%		
Used primary means:	All	SO	PH	OP	SE		All	SO	PH	OP	SE		All	SO	PH	OP	SE	
Hard work, perseverance	27	32	44	24	20		30	26	58	27	30		25	23	35	19	24	
Luck, chance, fate, coincidence	11	13	6	11	15		13	18	8	10	21		10	18	6	7	7	
Trickery, deceit, cunning	6	8	-	8	5		13	18	-	12	18		13	19	-	15	19	
Knowledge, intellect, information	14	19	6	12	15		5	8	8	5	4		6	9	6	5	4	
Charm, attractiveness, kindness	18	13	16	18	20		21	12	17	25	18		26	14	24	31	28	
Force, power, firmness, discipline	10	9	11	12	9		6	9	-	7	5		8	9	18	8	7	
Persuasion, argumentation	10	5	6	13	11		7	7	-	12	4		7	4	-	11	6	
None, other	4	1	11	2	5		5	3	9	2	-		5	3	11	4	5	
Total:	All	totals		100%			All	totals		100%			All	totals		100%		
Reached final outcome:	All	SO	PH	OP	SE		All	SO	PH	OP	SE		All	SO	PH	OP	SE	
Successful, achieves goal	57	52	50	58	43		53	49	50	50	66		59	53	61	56	67	
Fails to achieve goal	14	26	11	14	26		15	22	17	16	12		17	21	11	21	15	
Mixed, uncertain	29	22	39	28	31		32	29	33	34	22		24	26	28	23	18	
Total:	All	totals		100%			All	totals		100%			All	totals		100%		

Key to abbreviation of barriers:

SO	Society, law, impersonal authority
PH	Physical hardship, illness, elements
OP	Other people, personal conflict
SE	Self, fear, weakness, inadequacy
NO	None, other

NOTE: All figures are percents of characters in role.

TABLE 15

GOALS, MEANS, AND OUTCOMES OF CHARACTERS WHO ENCOUNTERED DIFFERENT BARRIERS; EASTERN EUROPE

Characters who encountered primary barriers......	TEACHERS						STUDENTS						OTHERS					
	All	SO	PH	OP	SE	NO	All	SO	PH	OP	SE	NO	All	SO	PH	OP	SE	NO
	100%	25	7	39	9	20	100%	24	4	36	19	17	100%	26	9	23	11	31
Sought primary goals:	All	SO	PH	OP	SE		All	SO	PH	OP	SE		All	SO	PH	OP	SE	
Self-centered, individualistic	23	18	27	22	57		38	33	50	34	52		49	62	22	35	55	
Affectionate, family-oriented	7	3	27	5	7		15	11	25	21	10		19	12	33	30	27	
Intellectual, professional, science, art	34	20	27	49	14		21	20	-	21	31		11	-	22	17	-	
Social morality, duty, honor	35	60	18	24	21		22	36	17	22	8		16	27	22	13	9	
None, other	*	-	1	-	1		4	-	8	2	-		5	-	1	5	9	
Total:	All	totals		100%			All	totals		100%			All	totals		100%		
Used primary means:	All	SO	PH	OP	SE		All	SO	PH	OP	SE		All	SO	PH	OP	SE	
Hard work, perseverance	32	45	36	22	29		29	32	50	29	33		30	35	67	22	36	
Luck, chance, fate, coincidence	4	5	-	6	7		14	11	8	16	15		7	11	-	4	9	
Trickery, deceit, cunning	9	8	18	6	29		12	14	8	13	10		12	15	-	13	9	
Knowledge, intellect, information	31	17	18	38	14		17	24	-	17	11		12	4	11	17	9	
Charm, attractiveness, kindness	5	5	18	5	14		13	6	17	11	25		13	8	11	17	18	
Force, power, firmness, discipline	9	10	9	14	-		7	11	-	5	4		13	23	-	9	9	
Persuasion, argumentation	6	10	-	6	7		2	1	-	4	-		5	4	-	13	-	
None, other	4	-	1	3	-		6	1	17	5	2		8	-	11	5	10	
Total:	All	totals		100%			All	totals		100%			All	totals		100%		
Reached final outcome:	All	SO	PH	OP	SE		All	SO	PH	OP	SE		All	SO	PH	OP	SE	
Successful, achieves goal	53	40	36	62	64		61	50	25	74	71		42	27	11	43	27	
Fails to achieve goal	19	22	18	19	29		19	35	33	9	17		29	42	56	22	27	
Mixed, uncertain	28	38	46	19	7		20	15	42	17	12		29	31	33	35	46	
Total:	All	totals		100%			All	totals		100%			All	totals		100%		

Key to abbreviation of barriers:

SO Society, law, impersonal authority
PH Physical hardship, illness, elements
OP Other people, personal conflict
SE Self, fear, weakness, inadequacy
NO None, other

NOTE: All figures are percents of characters in role.

TABLE 16

GOALS, BARRIERS, AND OUTCOMES OF CHARACTERS WHO USED DIFFERENT MEANS; UNITED STATES

Character who used primary means....	T E A C H E R S All 100%	HW 21	LC 8	TR 5	KN 20	CH 15	FO 16	PE 10	NO 5
Sought primary goals:	All	HW	LC	TR	KN	CH	FO	PE	
Self-centered, individualistic	27	26	26	60	8	21	20	21	
Affectionate, family-oriented	27	23	36	10	14	50	23	42	
Intellectual, professional, science, art	24	28	14	10	64	11	30	-	
Social morality, duty, honor	18	18	14	20	14	18	20	37	
None, other	4	5	10	-	-	-	7	-	
Total:	All	totals	100%						
Encountered primary barriers:	All	HW	LC	TR	KN	CH	FO	PE	
Society, law, impersonal authority	15	17	28	30	14	11	7	21	
Physical hardship, illness, elements	5	13	7	-	11	-	-	-	
Other people, personal conflict	59	49	37	70	61	75	67	63	
Self, fear, weakness, inadequacy	11	13	28	-	5	7	20	10	
None, other	10	8	-	-	9	7	6	6	
Total:	All	totals	100%						
Reached final outcome:	All	HW	LC	TR	KN	CH	FO	PE	
Successful, achieves goal	68	85	79	50	80	86	67	53	
Fails to achieve goal	10	13	-	30	6	4	13	26	
Mixed, uncertain	22	2	21	20	14	10	20	21	
Total:	All	totals	100%						

Character who used primary means....	S T U D E N T S All 100%	HW 32	LC 8	TR 13	KN 8	CH 21	FO 10	PE 2	NO 6
Sought primary goals:	All	HW	LC	TR	KN	CH	FO	PE	
Self-centered, individualistic	41	40	44	74	18	27	48	25	
Affectionate, family-oriented	36	30	37	18	12	70	33	75	
Intellectual, professional, science, art	13	18	12	-	47	2	5	-	
Social morality, duty, honor	7	12	-	7	12	-	9	-	
None, other	3	-	7	1	11	1	5	-	
Total:	All	totals	100%						
Encountered primary barriers:	All	HW	LC	TR	KN	CH	FO	PE	
Society, law, impersonal authority	15	12	12	22	17	12	29	-	
Physical hardship, illness, elements	4	10	-	-	-	2	-	-	
Other people, personal conflict	53	54	62	52	55	47	62	-	
Self, fear, weakness, inadequacy	21	22	25	15	17	30	9	100	
None, other	7	2	1	11	11	9	-	-	
Total:	All	totals	100%						
Reached final outcome:	All	HW	LC	TR	KN	CH	FO	PE	
Successful, achieves goal	68	76	75	63	83	82	48	75	
Fails to achieve goal	10	6	6	11	-	4	24	25	
Mixed, uncertain	22	18	19	26	17	14	28	-	
Total:	All	totals	100%						

Character who used primary means....	O T H E R S All 100%	HW 23	LC 11	TR 17	KN 6	CH 23	FO 12	PE 4	NO 4
Sought primary goals:	All	HW	LC	TR	KN	CH	FO	PE	
Self-centered, individualistic	38	30	44	60	30	29	33	43	
Affectionate, family-oriented	42	46	44	21	20	63	33	43	
Intellectual, professional, science, art	6	11	-	-	-	5	11	14	
Social morality, duty, honor	10	13	5	18	40	-	11	-	
None, other	4	-	7	1	10	3	12	-	
Total:	All	totals	100%						
Encountered primary barriers:	All	HW	LC	TR	KN	CH	FO	PE	
Society, law, impersonal authority	12	19	18	18	25	3	5	12	
Physical hardship, illness, elements	5	11	5	-	12	8	-	-	
Other people, personal conflict	65	56	50	71	63	74	84	63	
Self, fear, weakness, inadequacy	12	11	22	7	-	10	10	25	
None, other	6	3	5	4	-	5	1	-	
Total:	All	totals	100%						
Reached final outcome:	All	HW	LC	TR	KN	CH	FO	PE	
Successful, achieves goal	65	67	83	54	75	68	74	50	
Fails to achieve goal	13	17	-	14	13	8	16	-	
Mixed, uncertain	22	16	17	32	12	24	10	50	
Total:	All	totals	100%						

Key to abbreviation of means:

HW	Hard work, perseverance
LC	Luck, chance, fate, coincidence
TR	Trickery, deceit, cunning
KN	Knowledge, intellect, information
CH	Charm, attractiveness, kindness
FO	Force, power, firmness, discipline
PE	Persuasion, argumentation
NO	None, other

NOTE: All figures are percents of characters in role.

TABLE 17

GOALS, BARRIERS, AND OUTCOMES OF CHARACTERS WHO USED DIFFERENT MEANS; WESTERN EUROPE

	TEACHERS									STUDENTS									OTHERS								
Characters who used primary means....	All 100%	HW 27	LC 11	TR 6	KN 14	CH 18	FO 10	PE 10	NO 4	All 100%	HW 30	LC 13	TR 13	KN 5	CH 21	FO 6	PE 7	NO 5	All 100%	HW 25	LC 10	TR 13	KN 6	CH 26	FO 8	PE 7	NO 5
Sought primary goals:	All	HW	LC	TR	KN	CH	FO	PE		All	HW	LC	TR	KN	CH	FO	PE		All	HW	LC	TR	KN	CH	FO	PE	
Self-centered, individualistic	32	26	36	88	15	21	49	32		33	26	52	64	26	14	43	27		44	47	54	81	48	21	50	38	
Affectionate, family-oriented	25	19	29	7	11	55	5	37		42	34	37	24	21	73	22	58		41	27	44	13	13	75	32	41	
Intellectual, professional, science, art	19	29	17	-	44	8	5	11		14	32	6	4	26	3	4	-		3	8	-	2	13	-	-	3	
Social morality, duty, honor	22	25	17	4	31	15	41	21		8	7	2	4	26	6	30	11		11	18	3	4	26	4	18	17	
None, other	2	1	2	-	-	-	-	-		3	2	2	4	-	4	-	4		1	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	
Total:	All	totals 100%								All	totals 100%								All	totals 100%							
Encountered primary barriers:	All	HW	LC	TR	KN	CH	FO	PE		All	HW	LC	TR	KN	CH	FO	PE		All	HW	LC	TR	KN	CH	FO	PE	
Society, law, impersonal authority	21	25	26	28	29	15	20	10		21	18	27	29	32	12	30	19		19	18	36	28	30	10	21	10	
Physical hardship, illness, elements	5	7	2	-	2	4	5	3		3	6	2	-	5	3	-	-		4	6	3	-	4	4	9	-	
Other people, personal conflict	45	40	48	56	39	45	54	63		43	39	31	40	37	52	48	69		48	38	36	54	43	57	45	76	
Self, fear, weakness, inadequacy	14	10	19	12	14	15	13	16		16	16	25	22	10	14	13	8		13	13	10	18	13	14	12	10	
None, other	15	17	5	4	16	20	8	8		17	21	15	9	16	19	9	4		16	25	15	-	9	15	12	3	
Total:	All	totals 100%								All	totals 100%								All	totals 100%							
Reached final outcome:	All	HW	LC	TR	KN	CH	FO	PE		All	HW	LC	TR	KN	CH	FO	PE		All	HW	LC	TR	KN	CH	FO	PE	
Successful, achieves goal	57	58	62	48	57	71	49	53		53	63	50	53	42	57	48	42		59	72	49	33	61	67	50	62	
Fails to achieve goal	14	12	9	44	14	7	8	24		15	13	15	21	10	12	22	27		17	10	8	44	13	16	21	-	
Mixed, uncertain	29	30	29	8	29	22	43	23		32	24	35	26	48	31	30	31		24	18	43	23	26	17	29	38	
Total:	All	totals 100%								All	totals 100%								All	totals 100%							

Key to abbreviation of means:

HW	Hard work, perseverance	CH	Charm, attractiveness, kindness
LC	Luck, chance, fate, coincidence	FO	Force, power, firmness, discipline
TR	Trickery, deceit, cunning	PE	Persuasion, argumentation
KN	Knowledge, intellect, information	NO	None, other

NOTE: All figures are percents of characters in role.

TABLE 18

GOALS, BARRIERS, AND OUTCOMES OF CHARACTERS WHO USED DIFFERENT MEANS; EASTERN EUROPE

Characters who used primary means....	TEACHERS									STUDENTS									OTHERS								
	All	HW	LC	TR	KN	CH	FO	PE	NO	All	HW	LC	TR	KN	CH	FO	PE	NO	All	HW	LC	TR	KN	CH	FO	PE	NO
	100%	32	4	9	31	5	9	6	4	100%	29	14	12	17	13	7	2	6	100%	30	7	12	12	13	13	5	8
Sought primary goals:	All	HW	LC	TR	KN	CH	FO	PE		All	HW	LC	TR	KN	CH	FO	PE		All	HW	LC	TR	KN	CH	FO	PE	
Self-centered, individualistic	23	10	29	100	6	-	50	22		38	23	55	84	19	53	29	20		49	44	71	75	33	43	58	20	
Affectionate, family-oriented	7	4	14	-	2	50	-	-		15	5	21	9	14	29	14	40		19	22	14	8	8	50	-	-	
Intellectual, professional, science, art	34	35	29	-	61	38	14	11		21	36	8	3	30	8	19	20		11	11	-	-	58	-	8	-	
Social morality, duty, honor	35	50	29	-	31	12	36	67		22	34	8	3	37	8	38	20		16	19	14	17	-	7	33	60	
None, other	*	2	-	-	-	-	-	-		4	1	8	-	-	3	-	-		5	4	-	-	-	-	-	20	
Total:	All	totals		100%						All	totals		100%						All	totals		100%					
Encountered primary barriers:	All	HW	LC	TR	KN	CH	FO	PE		All	HW	LC	TR	KN	CH	FO	PE		All	HW	LC	TR	KN	CH	FO	PE	
Society, law, impersonal authority	25	35	29	20	15	22	29	40		24	27	19	28	34	11	35	20		26	29	43	33	8	15	46	20	
Physical hardship, illness, elements	7	8	-	13	4	22	7	-		4	8	3	3	-	6	-	-		9	19	-	-	8	8	-	-	
Other people, personal conflict	39	27	57	27	50	33	64	40		36	37	43	41	36	31	25	80		23	16	14	25	33	31	15	60	
Self, fear, weakness, inadequacy	9	8	14	27	4	22	-	10		19	21	22	16	13	37	10	-		11	13	14	8	8	15	8	-	
None, other	20	23	-	13	27	-	-	10		17	8	13	12	17	14	30	-		31	23	29	33	42	31	31	20	
Total:	All	totals		100%						All	totals		100%						All	totals		100%					
Reached final outcome:	All	HW	LC	TR	KN	CH	FO	PE		All	HW	LC	TR	KN	CH	FO	PE		All	HW	LC	TR	KN	CH	FO	PE	
Successful, achieves goal	53	73	71	13	60	67	7	40		61	70	73	37	72	57	60	20		42	47	71	42	50	29	31	40	
Fails to achieve goal	19	8	14	67	10	11	43	20		19	15	8	25	17	20	20	80		29	23	29	42	25	36	15	-	
Mixed, uncertain	28	19	15	20	30	22	50	40		20	15	19	38	11	23	20	-		29	30	-	16	25	35	54	60	
Total:	All	totals		100%						All	totals		100%						All	totals		100%					

Key to abbreviation of means:

HW	Hard work, perseverance
LC	Luck, chance, fate, coincidence
TR	Trickery, deceit, cunning
KN	Knowledge, intellect, information
CH	Charm, attractiveness, kindness
FO	Force, power, firmness, discipline
PE	Persuasion, argumentation
NO	None, other

NOTE: All figures are percents of characters in role.

TABLE 19

GOALS, BARRIERS, AND MEANS OF CHARACTERS WHO REACHED DIFFERENT OUTCOMES; UNITED STATES

Characters who reached final outcome.........	TEACHERS				STUDENTS				OTHERS			
	All	SU	FA	MI	All	SU	FA	MI	All	SU	FA	MI
	100%	68	10	22	100%	68	10	22	100%	65	13	22
Sought primary goals:	All	SU	FA	MI	All	SU	FA	MI	All	SU	FA	MI
Self-centered, individualistic	27	21	40	34	41	40	65	33	38	36	33	47
Affectionate, family-oriented	27	26	20	34	36	37	20	40	42	41	48	42
Intellectual, professional, science, art	24	31	15	16	13	12	15	17	6	8	-	3
Social morality, duty, honor	18	18	25	14	7	10	-	-	10	10	10	8
None, other	4	4	-	2	3	1	-	10	4	4	9	-
Total:	All	totals		100%	All	totals		100%	All	totals		100%
Encountered primary barriers:	All	SU	FA	MI	All	SU	FA	MI	All	SU	FA	MI
Society, law, impersonal authority	15	12	25	25	15	16	16	10	12	14	9	9
Physical hardship, illness, elements	5	7	5	-	4	4	3	2	5	7	9	-
Other people, personal conflict	59	61	55	50	53	53	60	57	65	64	67	74
Self, fear, weakness, inadequacy	11	12	15	7	21	23	21	17	12	8	9	11
None, other	10	8	-	18	7	5	-	14	6	7	6	6
Total:	All	totals		100%	All	totals		100%	All	totals		100%
Used primary means:	All	SU	FA	MI	All	SU	FA	MI	All	SU	FA	MI
Hard work, perseverance	21	24	25	4	32	35	22	29	23	22	29	17
Luck, chance, fate, coincidence	8	8	-	11	8	8	5	7	11	14	-	8
Trickery, deceit, cunning	5	4	15	7	13	12	17	17	17	14	19	25
Knowledge, intellect, information	20	21	10	18	8	10	-	7	6	6	5	3
Charm, attractiveness, kindness	15	18	5	11	21	24	11	14	23	24	14	25
Force, power, firmness, discipline	16	15	20	18	10	7	28	14	12	13	14	6
Persuasion, argumentation	10	7	25	14	2	2	6	-	4	4	-	11
None, other	5	3	-	17	6	2	11	12	4	3	19	5
Total:	All	totals		100%	All	totals		100%	All	totals		100%

Key to abbreviation of outcomes:
SU Successful, achieves goal
FA Fails to achieve goal
MI Mixed, uncertain

NOTE: All figures are percents of characters in role.

TABLE 20

GOALS, BARRIERS, AND MEANS OF CHARACTERS WHO REACHED DIFFERENT OUTCOMES; WESTERN EUROPE

Characters who reached final outcome..........	TEACHERS				STUDENTS				OTHERS			
	All	SU	FA	MI	All	SU	FA	MI	All	SU	FA	MI
	100%	57	14	29	100%	53	15	32	100%	59	17	24
Sought primary goals:	All	SU	FA	MI	All	SU	FA	MI	All	SU	FA	MI
Self-centered, individualistic	32	22	57	39	33	22	39	45	44	33	64	57
Affectionate, family-oriented	25	34	11	15	42	46	39	37	41	48	28	33
Intellectual, professional, science, art	19	20	18	18	14	18	11	8	3	4	-	4
Social morality, duty, honor	22	23	14	24	8	11	9	5	11	14	7	5
None, other	2	1	-	4	3	2	2	5	1	*	1	1
Total:	All	totals		100%	All	totals		100%	All	totals		100%
Encountered primary barriers:	All	SU	FA	MI	All	SU	FA	MI	All	SU	FA	MI
Society, law, impersonal authority	21	20	33	17	21	19	30	20	19	17	23	20
Physical hardship, illness, elements	5	4	3	6	3	3	4	4	4	5	3	5
Other people, personal conflict	45	47	38	43	43	40	46	46	48	45	59	45
Self, fear, weakness, inadequacy	14	11	21	15	16	19	13	11	13	15	12	10
None, other	15	18	5	19	17	18	7	20	16	18	3	19
Total:	All	totals		100%	All	totals		100%	All	totals		100%
Used primary means:	All	SU	FA	MI	All	SU	FA	MI	All	SU	FA	MI
Hard work, perseverance	27	27	23	27	30	35	26	23	25	30	14	18
Luck, chance, fate, coincidence	11	11	7	11	13	12	13	15	10	8	4	17
Trickery, deceit, cunning	6	5	20	2	13	13	19	11	13	7	35	12
Knowledge, intellect, information	14	14	14	14	5	4	4	8	6	6	4	6
Charm, attractiveness, kindness	18	22	9	13	21	21	17	20	26	30	25	18
Force, power, firmness, discipline	10	8	5	15	6	6	9	6	8	7	10	10
Persuasion, argumentation	10	9	16	8	7	6	13	7	7	7	-	11
None, other	4	3	5	9	5	2	-	10	5	5	7	7
Total:	All	totals		100%	All	totals		100%	All	totals		100%

Key to abbreviation of outcomes:

SU Successful, achieves goal
FA Fails to achieve goal
MI Mixed, uncertain

NOTE: All figures are percents of characters in role.

TABLE 21

GOALS, BARRIERS, AND MEANS OF CHARACTERS WHO REACHED DIFFERENT OUTCOMES; EASTERN EUROPE

Characters who reached final outcome..........	TEACHERS				STUDENTS				OTHERS			
	All	SU	FA	MI	All	SU	FA	MI	All	SU	FA	MI
	100%	53	19	28	100%	61	19	20	100%	42	29	29
Sought primary goals:	All	SU	FA	MI	All	SU	FA	MI	All	SU	FA	MI
Self-centered, individualistic	23	9	61	24	38	35	45	44	49	38	48	56
Affectionate, family-oriented	7	6	-	11	15	14	18	14	19	19	33	9
Intellectual, professional, science, art	34	47	7	26	21	26	14	10	11	17	7	6
Social morality, duty, honor	35	38	28	36	22	24	18	19	16	21	7	19
None, other	*	-	4	3	4	2	4	14	5	5	4	9
Total:	All	totals		100%	All	totals		100%	All	totals		100%
Encountered primary barriers:	All	SU	FA	MI	All	SU	FA	MI	All	SU	FA	MI
Society, law, impersonal authority	25	19	31	32	24	20	47	17	26	17	41	25
Physical hardship, illness, elements	7	5	7	11	4	2	8	8	9	2	19	9
Other people, personal conflict	39	46	41	26	36	44	18	29	23	24	19	25
Self, fear, weakness, inadequacy	9	11	14	2	19	22	18	10	11	7	11	16
None, other	20	20	7	30	17	12	8	36	31	50	11	25
Total:	All	totals		100%	All	totals		100%	All	totals		100%
Used primary means:	All	SU	FA	MI	All	SU	FA	MI	All	SU	FA	MI
Hard work, perseverance	32	45	14	21	29	33	24	20	30	33	26	28
Luck, chance, fate, coincidence	4	6	3	2	14	16	6	12	7	12	7	-
Trickery, deceit, cunning	9	2	34	6	12	7	16	20	12	12	19	6
Knowledge, intellect, information	31	34	17	30	17	21	16	8	12	14	11	9
Charm, attractiveness, kindness	5	7	3	4	13	12	14	14	13	10	19	16
Force, power, firmness, discipline	9	1	21	15	7	7	8	7	13	10	7	22
Persuasion, argumentation	6	5	7	9	2	1	8	-	5	5	-	9
None, other	4	-	1	13	6	2	8	19	8	5	11	9
Total:	All	totals		100%	All	totals		100%	All	totals		100%

Key to abbreviation of outcomes:

SU Successful, achieves goal
FA Fails to achieve goal
MI Mixed, uncertain

NOTE: All figures are percents of characters in role.

TABLE 22

OUTCOME IN PERCENT OF STORIES, BY COUNTRY AND AREA; ALL MEDIA

	U.S.	WEST EUR. Total	Great Brit.	West Germ.	France	EAST EUR. Total	Po-land	Czech slov.	Hun-gary
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Clearly happy ending	71	60	68	56	42	56	32	71	64
Clearly unhappy ending	2	13	11	11	28	20	33	11	16
Mixed, unclear	27	27	21	33	30	24	35	18	20

TABLE 23

OUTCOME IN PERCENT OF STORIES IN EACH MEDIUM; BY AREA

	United States	Western Europe	Eastern Europe
	%	%	%
Films			
Clearly happy ending	83	62	68
Clearly unhappy ending	2	12	13
Mixed, unclear	15	26	19
Broadcast drama			
Clearly happy ending	62	40	28
Clearly unhappy ending	2	27	40
Mixed, unclear	36	33	32
Magazine fiction			
Clearly happy ending	70	72	57
Clearly unhappy ending	2	5	15
Mixed, unclear	28	23	28

TABLE 24

OUTCOME IN PERCENT OF STORIES BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION ASSOCIATED WITH THE PORTRAYALS, ALL MEDIA; BY AREA

	United States	Western Europe	Eastern Europe
	%	%	%
Primary schools			
Clearly happy ending	85	64	70
Clearly unhappy ending	--	12	11
Mixed, unclear	15	24	19
Secondary schools			
Clearly happy ending	63	57	51
Clearly unhappy ending	3	13	22
Mixed, unclear	34	30	27
Higher education			
Clearly happy ending	71	60	45
Clearly unhappy ending	1	15	30
Mixed, unclear	28	25	25

Appendix V-A

THE SCHOOL PROGRAM

TABLE 1

GOALS OF EDUCATION, ALL MEDIA; BY COUNTRY AND AREA

	U.S.	WEST EUR. Total	Great Brit.	West Germ.	France	EAST EUR. Total	Po-land	Czech slov.	Hun-gary
Percent of stories with any indication of goal of education	% 64	% 57	% 49	% 64	% 74	% 65	% 45	% 69	% 89
Total no. of goals or purposes indicated (100%)	N 293	N 326	N 141	N 133	N 53	N 173	N 48	N 83	N 44
Types of goals indicated (as % of total no. of goals):	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Learning of subject matter; the 3 R's	18	30	14	53	11	30	20	29	41
Development of good citizenship; democracy	12	6	6	7	6	12	10	16	2
Ideals, values, moral qualities	17	17	14	17	26	18	29	17	16
Vocational, professional skills, competence	13	16	30	5	4	16	17	10	27
Social advancement; to "make good" in life	19	10	17	5	9	3	6	4	--
Exploration, discovery of new knowledge	10	7	9	3	11	7	4	10	5
Transmission of historical, cultural heritage	4	6	2	6	19	4	2	6	2
Direct service to community, nation	7	7	7	4	13	9	10	10	7

TABLE 2

GOALS OF EDUCATION IN EACH MEDIUM; BY AREA

	United States[1]			Western Europe[1]			Eastern Europe[1]		
	Film	Bdct.	Mag.	Film	Bdct.	Mag.	Film	Bdct.	Mag.
Percent of stories with any indication of goal of education	% 78	% 55	% 61	% 64	% 79	% 50	% 66	% 59	% 69
Total no. of goals or purposes indicated (100%)	N 107	N 91	N 95	N 123	N 103	N 100	N 96	N 42	N 35
Types of goals indicated (as % of total no. of goals):	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Learning of subject matter; the 3 R's	15	18	22	28	22	39	41	17	17
Development of good citizenship; democracy	14	10	11	9	7	2	15	2	14
Ideals, values, moral qualities	17	19	15	20	23	8	17	17	29
Vocational, professional skills, competence	11	12	16	7	17	24	10	29	17
Social advancement; to "make good" in life	11	25	22	6	13	14	1	9	3
Exploration, discovery of new knowledge	12	11	6	11	4	7	7	12	--
Transmission of historical, cultural heritage	4	3	6	7	9	3	2	5	9
Direct service to community, nation	16	2	2	11	5	3	8	9	11

[1] Films, Broadcast Drama, Magazine Fiction.

TABLE 3

GOALS OF EDUCATION BY LEVEL AND TYPE OF EDUCATION ASSOCIATED WITH THE PORTRAYALS; BY AREA

	United States				Western Europe				Eastern Europe		
Level of educ.[1]...	Pr.	Se.	H.,o.	Prvt.	Pr.	Se.	H.,o.	Prvt.	Pr.	Se.	H.,o.
Percent of stories with any indication of goal of education	% 62	% 61	% 67	% 56	% 53	% 58	% 58	% 57	% 70	% 70	% 56
Total no. of goals or purposes indicated (100%)	N 58	N 122	N 113	N 56	N 55	N 137	N 134	N 60	N 62	N 57	N 54
Types of goals indicated (as % of total no. of goals):	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Learning of subject matter; the 3 R's	19	22	13	7	36	34	22	27	37	35	17
Development of good citizenship; democracy	19	16	3	5	7	7	4	8	16	12	5
Ideals, values, moral qualities	26	17	11	21	20	25	9	20	19	25	11
Vocational, professional skills, competence	9	7	21	21	5	10	25	23	5	9	37
Social advancement; to "make good" in life	9	25	19	25	9	8	13	13	--	2	9
Exploration, discovery of new knowledge	9	4	17	11	2	3	14	3	5	5	11
Transmission of historical, cultural heritage	3	2	8	9	7	9	4	2	6	3	2
Direct service to community, nation	7	7	8	--	13	4	7	3	11	9	7

[1] Primary school, Secondary school, Higher education and other, Private (all levels).

TABLE 4

REFERENCE TO SUBJECT MATTER IN THE STORIES, ALL MEDIA; BY COUNTRY AND AREA

	U.S.	WEST EUR. Total	Great Brit.	West Germ.	France	EAST EUR. Total	Po-land	Czech slov.	Hun-gary
Percent of stories making reference to subjects taught, studied	% 59	% 44	% 37	% 42	% 78	% 47	% 53	% 39	% 59
Total no. of reference to subject (100%)	N 296	N 255	N 109	N 87	N 52	N 173	N 53	N 72	N 48
Types of subject matter (as % of total):	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Humanities (history, language, philosophy, literature, art, classics)	47	57	52	63	59	41	30	56	33
Social studies and sciences	13	4	3	2	7	5	7	3	4
Mathematics	8	8	6	5	17	10	9	5	17
Physical and natural sciences	16	10	8	10	12	17	15	14	23
Agriculture	--	--	--	--	--	2	4	--	2
Technology, engineering, industrial subjects	2	3	6	1	--	6	6	8	4
Military science and subjects	1	2	5	--	--	--	--	--	--
Physical education, sports	3	1	2	--	--	3	4	3	2
Professional studies (medicine, law, education, journalism, architecture, etc.)	7	13	13	19	5	14	19	11	13
Miscellaneous applied studies (home economics, secretarial, crafts, etc.)	3	2	5	--	--	2	6	--	2

TABLE 5

TYPES OF SUBJECT MATTER TAUGHT AND STUDIED BY TEACHERS AND STUDENTS, ALL MEDIA; BY COUNTRY AND AREA

	U.S.		WEST EUR.		Great Brit.		West Germ.		France		EAST EUR.		Po-land		Czech slov.		Hun-gary	
	T	S	T	S	T	S	T	S	T	S	T	S	T	S	T	S	T	S
	%		%		%		%		%		%		%		%		%	
Percent of teachers (T) and students (S) shown teaching or studying a specific subject	55	48	45	44	42	56	47	26	50	69	55	52	58	39	52	65	59	37
	N		N		N		N		N		N		N		N		N	
Total no. of subjects taught (T) or studied (S) (100%)	201	225	221	185	92	100	83	45	46	40	107	168	27	49	50	106	30	13
Types of subjects taught (T) or studied (S) as % of total numbers:	%		%		%		%		%		%		%		%		%	
Humanities[1]	45	50	59	53	53	51	59	56	72	58	53	32	44	21	68	39	37	16
Social studies and sciences	16	5	3	3	4	2	3	---	2	8	7	3	11	8	4	1	7	--
Mathematics	7	9	10	8	7	6	11	4	15	15	8	13	15	18	2	8	13	23
Physical and natural sciences	19	14	16	8	16	6	18	11	11	7	16	14	19	14	12	13	20	23
Agriculture	--	1	--	1	--	1	--	--	--	2	2	4	--	--	--	5	7	15
Technology, engineering, industrial subjects	--	3	--	6	--	9	--	4	--	--	4	16	--	10	4	18	6	23
Military science and subjects	1	3	1	1	1	1	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
Physical education, sports	3	3	3	1	5	2	1	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
Professional studies[1]	7	8	6	17	8	18	8	25	--	8	10	16	11	23	10	15	10	--
Miscellaneous applied studies[1]	2	4	2	2	6	4	--	--	--	2	--	2	--	6	--	1	--	--

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[1] See explanation of these categories on Table 4.

TABLE 6

PERCENT OF STORIES AFFIRMING SELECTED PROPOSITIONS ABOUT THE SCHOOL PROGRAM; ALL MEDIA, BY AREA

	United States %		Western Europe %		Eastern Europe %	
The school program is well-organized						
Percent of all stories	17		8		20	
Percent of stories related to:						
primary schools	26		5		34	
secondary schools	16		12		14	
higher education	14		7		12	
several levels, other	13		4		18	
Democracy can be successfully practiced in the classroom						
Percent of all stories	6		5		15	
Percent of stories related to:						
primary schools	15		7		21	
secondary schools	6		8		16	
higher education	2		2		7	
several levels, other	9		2		9	
School is related to real life (R) vs. school is of little use (L.U.) in solving real-life problems	(R)	(L.U.)	(R)	(L.U.)	(R)	(L.U.)
Percent of all stories	14	12	8	16	28	16
Percent of stories related to:						
primary schools	15	3	11	15	39	12
secondary schools	11	21	8	21	22	23
higher education	16	13	6	13	20	14
several levels, other	22	22	8	6	36	9
Learning is of immediate use and benefit (I) vs. learning is of no immediate use but pays off later(L) in life	(I)	(L)	(I)	(L)	(I)	(L)
Percent of all stories	14	2	10	4	23	8
Percent of stories related to:						
primary schools	8	0	4	3	23	7
secondary schools	13	3	8	6	22	10
higher education	17	2	16	3	20	8
several levels, other	22	4	10	2	45	9

TABLE 7

MAJOR PROBLEMS OF SCHOOLS AND EDUCATION, ALL MEDIA; BY COUNTRY AND AREA

	U.S.	WEST EUR. Total	Great Brit.	West Germ.	France	EAST EUR. Total	Po-land	Czech slov.	Hun-gary
Percent of stories which portray major problem(s)	% 57	% 51	% 43	% 57	% 70	% 52	% 39	% 49	% 80
Total number of problems portrayed (100%)	N 310	N 273	N 118	N 113	N 42	N 155	N 29	N 59	N 45
Types of problems presented (as % of total no. of problems):	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Discipline of students	21	18	20	20	7	19	21	36	4
Lack of ability or preparation	24	17	14	24	5	11	28	10	7
Incompetence of teachers	6	7	8	4	12	4	7	--	2
Incompetence of administrators	6	4	3	--	17	3	7	--	7
Inadequate resources	7	10	12	6	12	7	3	--	22
Prejudice, group conflicts	10	17	14	20	14	14	21	17	4
Relations with parents	11	10	12	8	10	12	7	12	9
Relations with community	5	8	8	7	10	7	--	7	16
Other	11	10	9	10	14	23	7	19	29

TABLE 8

MAJOR PROBLEMS OF SCHOOLS AND EDUCATION BY LEVEL AND TYPE OF EDUCATION ASSOCIATED WITH THE PORTRAYALS; BY AREA

	United States				Western Europe				Eastern Europe		
Level of educ.[1]...	Pr.	Se.	Hi.	Prvt.	Pr.	Se.	Hi.	Prvt.	Pr.	Se.	Hi.
Percent of stories which portray major problem(s)	% 69	% 73	% 59	% 64	% 53	% 62	% 40	% 57	% 54	% 66	% 30
Total number of problems portrayed (100%)	N 55	N 147	N 102	N 77	N 51	N 141	N 66	N 64	N 50	N 51	N 21
Types of problems presented (as % of total no. of problems):	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Discipline of students	20	25	17	25	18	18	23	31	24	27	10
Lack of ability or preparation	14	23	29	18	14	18	24	17	8	13	19
Incompetence of teachers	--	8	4	8	8	9	--	8	--	2	5
Incompetence of administrators	2	8	6	8	6	4	--	8	2	4	10
Inadequate resources	9	7	4	5	12	8	11	6	12	4	10
Prejudice, group conflicts	7	11	12	13	6	21	17	9	10	15	14
Relations with parents	24	10	6	9	16	9	5	11	12	11	5
Relations with community	13	3	3	3	12	7	6	3	14	2	5
Other	11	5	20	12	10	6	15	6-	18	19	24

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[1] Primary school, Secondary school, Higher education.

TABLE 9

SUCCESS AND FAILURE OF TEACHING, LEARNING, OR SCHOOL PROGRAM, ALL MEDIA; BY COUNTRY AND AREA

	U.S.	WEST EUR. Total	Great Brit.	West Germ.	France	EAST EUR. Total	Poland	Czechslov.	Hungary
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Percent of stories which portray success and/or failure	56	42	37	39	70	54	32	60	77
	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
Total number of portrayals of success and failure	248	213	105	72	36	133	25	70	38
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Success (% of total)	60	47	51	47	36	68	36	81	63
Failure (% of total)	40	53	49	53	64	32	64	19	37
Reasons for success (% of all portrayals of success):									
Personality of teacher	46	63	48	79	85	41	56	32	58
Personality of student	38	20	30	12	--	49	22	67	17
Nature of school program	7	5	6	6	--	6	11	--	17
Other reasons	9	12	17	3	15	4	11	2	8
Reasons for failure (% of all portrayals of failure):									
Personality of teacher	22	31	28	21	57	26	31	23	21
Personality of student	41	29	31	34	13	35	31	54	21
Nature of school program	8	6	10	5	--	2	--	--	7
Other reasons	29	34	31	39	30	37	38	23	50

TABLE 10

SUCCESS AND FAILURE OF TEACHING, LEARNING, OR SCHOOL PROGRAM BY LEVEL AND TYPE OF EDUCATION ASSOCIATED WITH THE PORTRAYALS; BY AREA

	United States				Western Europe				Eastern Europe		
Level of educ.[1]...	Pr.	Se.	Hi.	Prvt.	Pr.	Se.	Hi.	Prvt.	Pr.	Se.	Hi.
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Percent of stories which portray success and/or failure	52	61	53	53	42	53	35	63	61	59	39
	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
Total number of portrayals of success and failure	41	106	94	65	34	114	54	64	50	45	29
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Success (% of total)	81	51	57	57	65	37	61	41	86	56	55
Failure (% of total)	20	49	43	43	35	63	39	59	14	44	45
Reasons for success (% of all portrayals of success):											
Personality of teacher	64	43	41	57	95	67	36	50	53	32	19
Personality of student	27	48	39	27	--	14	39	27	35	56	75
Nature of school program	9	2	9	5	--	5	9	8	7	8	--
Other reasons	--	7	11	11	5	14	15	16	5	4	6
Reasons for failure (% of all portrayals of failure):											
Personality of teacher	12	27	18	18	42	35	9	32	14	20	38
Personality of student	25	48	35	36	17	21	62	21	--	35	54
Nature of school program	13	6	10	14	--	8	5	13	--	5	--
Other reasons	50	19	37	32	42	36	24	35	86	40	8

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[1] Primary school, Secondary school, Higher education, Private (all levels).

Appendix V-B

ACTIVITIES AND RELATIONSHIPS OF TEACHERS AND STUDENTS

TABLE 1

NON-CLASSROOM SCHOOL ACTIVITIES, ALL MEDIA; BY AREA

	UNITED STATES	WESTERN EUROPE	EASTERN EUROPE
Percent of stories portraying prominent non-classroom school activity	% 67	% 35	% 31
Total no. of such activities (100%)	N 323	N 165	N 125
Types of such activities (as % of total no. recorded):	%	%	%
Athletics	14	13	18
Counseling or advising	12	19	21
Life in dormitories, sororities, fraternities	13	12	13
Life on campus, neighborhood, community	36	38	36
Assembly or other school gathering	8	7	2
Faculty meeting or conference	9	4	3
School board meeting	5	4	1
Graduation	3	4	6

TABLE 2

PRINCIPAL APPEARANCES OF TEACHERS AND STUDENTS IN SELECTED SETTINGS, ALL MEDIA; BY COUNTRY AND AREA

	U.S.	WEST EUR. Total	Great Brit.	West Germ.	France	EAST EUR. Total	Poland	Czech slov.	Hungary
Teachers									
Total no. of settings recorded (100%)	488	516	247	171	98	194	43	89	62
Percent in:	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Classroom	22	17	11	23	23	20	23	14	26
Athletic field, gymnasium	5	1	1	1	1	3	--	6	2
Elsewhere on school, college grounds	23	27	28	18	30	24	26	23	24
Private home	27	28	28	9	16	28	35	28	24
Office, factory, farm; place of work	3	5	4	5	9	5	--	6	6
Place of recreation or amusement	5	9	11	5	8	6	5	11	--
Elsewhere	15	13	17	6	11	14	11	14	18
Students									
Total no. of settings recorded (100%)	607	416	188	184	44	296	103	150	43
Percent in:	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Classroom	18	13	9	15	27	13	15	7	33
Athletic field, gymnasium	7	2	3	1	7	4	2	7	--
Elsewhere on school, college grounds	27	16	23	9	16	9	11	12	19
Private home	26	41	44	39	36	32	38	31	21
Office, factory, farm, place of work	3	5	6	4	2	6	4	7	9
Place of recreation or amusement	7	14	9	21	7	20	24	22	2
Elsewhere	11	9	6	12	5	15	7	21	16

TABLE 3
CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES, ALL MEDIA; BY COUNTRY AND AREA

	U.S.	WEST EUR. Total	Great Brit.	West Germ.	France	EAST EUR. Total	Po-land	Czech slov.	Hun-gary
Percent of stories portraying prominent classroom activity	% 42	% 37	% 25	% 49	% 57	% 34	% 23	% 27	% 68
Total no. of activities (100%)	N 194	N 191	N 65	N 94	N 32	N 83	N 18	N 32	N 33
Types of activities (as % of total no. recorded):	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Teacher only lectures	28	32	19	42	31	30	39	25	30
Teacher demonstrates, uses materials, audio-visual aids	17	20	19	21	22	12	11	13	12
Teacher engaged in personal problems	10	15	19	10	25	18	5	22	21
Teacher engaged in controlling or disciplining	7	11	17	9	6	2	5	3	--
Teacher, students discuss subject matter or class activity	18	12	15	12	3	17	17	9	24
Students dominate classroom activity	9	3	3	2	6	2	--	3	3
Somebody other than teacher or students dominates classroom	4	2	3	1	3	2	6	3	--
Examination, testing	7	5	6	4	3	16	17	22	9

TABLE 4
CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES, BY LEVEL; BY AREA

	United States			Western Europe			Eastern Europe		
Level of educ.[1]...	Pr.	Se.	Hi.	Pr.	Se.	Hi.	Pr.	Se.	Hi.
Percent of stories portraying prominent classroom activity	% 42	% 44	% 42	% 48	% 43	% 31	% 42	% 38	% 19
Total no. of activities (100%)	N 30	N 82	N 78	N 46	N 87	N 48	N 36	N 29	N 14
Types of activities (as % of total no. recorded):	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Teacher only lectures	23	28	31	30	28	44	30	45	7
Teacher demonstrates, uses materials, audio-visual aids	17	7	27	35	12	19	17	7	7
Teacher engaged in personal problems	7	12	9	17	18	6	25	10	7
Teacher engaged in controlling or disciplining	7	13	--	11	15	6	3	7	--
Teacher, students discuss subject matter or class activity	23	16	17	2	16	15	17	14	14
Students dominate classroom activity	10	12	6	2	3	2	3	3	--
Somebody other than teacher or students dominates classroom	10	2	4	--	2	2	--	3	7
Examination, testing	3	9	6	2	6	6	5	10	57

[1] Primary school, Secondary school, Higher education.

TABLE 5

"CLASSROOM ATMOSPHERE," ALL MEDIA; BY COUNTRY AND AREA

	U.S.	WEST EUR. Total	Great Brit.	West Germ.	France	EAST EUR. Total	Po-land	Czech slov.	Hun-gary
Percent of stories portraying any kind of "classroom atmosphere"	% 40	% 28	% 21	% 48	% 59	% 31	% 24	% 22	% 66
Total no. of observations of "most prominent atmosphere"(100%)	N 157	N 176	N 58	N 85	N 33	N 74	N 19	N 26	N 29
Types of "classroom atmosphere" (as % of all observations):	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Class generally									
eager, attentive, orderly	40	32	29	38	21	45	--	46	72
very formal, passive	13	5	3	2	12	7	10	12	--
informal but orderly	20	7	12	2	12	8	16	11	--
noisy and lively but under control	15	31	12	44	30	27	37	27	21
rebellious and sullen but under control	3	9	10	9	6	--	--	--	--
out of control	6	11	21	4	15	9	21	4	7
disinterested, bored	3	5	12	1	3	4	16	--	--

TABLE 6

"CLASSROOM ATMOSPHERE" BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION ASSOCIATED WITH THE PORTRAYALS; BY AREA

	United States			Western Europe			Eastern Europe		
Level of educ.[1]...	Pr.	Se.	Hi.	Pr.	Se.	Hi.	Pr.	Se.	Hi.
Percent of stories portraying any kind of "classroom atmosphere"	% 43	% 39	% 40	% 47	% 46	% 26	% 46	% 34	% 12
Total no. of observations of "most prominent atmosphere"(100%)	N 31	N 64	N 59	N 41	N 91	N 36	N 36	N 25	N 9
Types of "classroom atmosphere" (as % of all observations):	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Class generally									
eager, attentive, orderly	45	25	51	32	25	50	50	28	56
very formal, passive	16	14	10	2	6	3	3	8	22
informal but orderly	19	23	17	5	10	3	8	12	--
noisy and lively but under control	13	20	12	39	26	28	30	32	--
rebellious and sullen but under control	3	6	--	10	10	8	--	--	--
out of control	3	8	5	7	18	3	3	16	22
disinterested, bored	--	3	5	5	5	5	6	4	--

[1] Primary school, Secondary school, Higher education.

TABLE 7

WHAT STUDENTS STRIVE FOR, ALL MEDIA; BY COUNTRY AND AREA

	U.S.	WEST EUR. Total	Great Brit.	West Germ.	France	EAST EUR. Total	Poland	Czechslov.	Hungary
Percent of stories portraying any striving	% 74	% 59	% 55	% 66	% 57	% 75	% 68	% 75	% 84
Total no. of goals striven for most (100%)	N 383	N 206	N 135	N 133	N 38	N 195	N 63	N 91	N 42
Types of goals (as % of total no. of goals):	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Learn, study, pass exams	25	37	36	41	26	26	18	17	60
Cut classes, get out of work, have fun	14	12	16	5	26	10	13	11	5
Find romance	18	24	24	22	29	15	19	15	7
Find thrill, adventure	8	12	6	20	8	14	19	12	12
Competition, rivalry, achievement outside of study	16	6	7	5	5	17	18	23	5
Acceptance, recognition, belonging	19	9	12	8	5	17	14	22	12

TABLE 8

WHAT STUDENTS STRIVE FOR, BY LEVEL AND TYPE OF EDUCATION ASSOCIATED WITH THE PORTRAYALS; BY AREA

	United States			Western Europe			Eastern Europe		
Level of educ.[1]...	Pr.	Se.	Hi.	Pr.	Se.	Hi.	Pr.	Se.	Hi.
Percent of stories portraying any striving	% 69	% 81	% 72	% 48	% 66	% 63	% 66	% 82	% 74
Total no. of goals striven for most (100%)	N 52	N 162	N 158	N 42	N 136	N 122	N 56	N 67	N 61
Types of goals (as % of total no. of goals):	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Learn, study, pass exams	25	20	31	39	29	42	29	16	31
Cut classes, get out of work, have fun	9	16	15	12	15	8	13	15	5
Find romance	2	19	24	5	25	33	--	19	23
Find thrill, adventure	6	9	6	19	15	7	14	21	8
Competition, rivalry, achievement outside of study	17	15	14	5	7	6	18	12	22
Acceptance, recognition, belonging	42	21	10	21	10	4	27	16	11

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[1] Primary school, Secondary school, Higher education.

TABLE 9

PERCENT OF CHARACTERIZATIONS AFFIRMING SELECTED PROPOSITIONS ABOUT THE LIFE OF STUDENTS AND TEACHERS; ALL MEDIA, BY AREA

	United States %	Western Europe %	Eastern Europe %
Student organizations (fraternities, etc.) are the center of school life			
Percent of all stories related to:			
secondary schools	--	1	2
higher education	10	1	1
Students have a lot of fun at school			
Percent of all stories	32	21	23
Percent of stories related to:			
primary schools	21	18	31
secondary schools	36	25	23
higher education	36	20	16
several levels, other	13	12	9
Teaching is an enjoyable task			
Percent of all stories	20	23	32
Percent of stories related to:			
primary schools	29	46	51
secondary schools	16	24	25
higher education	20	10	17
several levels, other	22	22	36
Teachers have a very heavy workload			
Percent of all stories	9	10	11
Percent of stories related to:			
primary schools	11	17	17
secondary schools	11	12	14
higher education	7	5	3
several levels, other	9	6	9
Teachers live on meager salary			
Percent of all stories	7	14	9
Percent of stories related to:			
primary schools	7	28	15
secondary schools	14	15	10
higher education	10	6	1
several levels, other	4	12	--

TABLE 10

PERCENT OF STORIES AFFIRMING SELECTED PROPOSITIONS ABOUT TEACHER-STUDENT RELATIONSHIPS; ALL MEDIA, BY AREA

	United States	Western Europe	Eastern Europe
	%	%	%
Teachers have much to do with students outside of class			
Percent of all stories	39	26	31
Percent of stories related to:			
primary schools	43	28	44
secondary schools	41	33	31
higher education	37	18	16
several levels, other	26	23	36
Students seem to enjoy making things harder for the teacher			
Percent of all stories	12	13	12
Percent of stories related to:			
primary schools	11	17	12
secondary schools	16	20	17
higher education	7	4	8
several levels, other	9	8	-
Teachers mold the character of students			
Percent of all stories	24	15	28
Percent of stories related to:			
primary schools	38	30	44
secondary schools	24	20	30
higher education	21	6	7
several levels, other	13	6	36

TABLE 11

PERCENT OF CHARACTERIZATIONS AFFIRMING SELECTED PROPOSITIONS ABOUT TEACHER-STUDENT RELATIONSHIPS; ALL MEDIA, BY AREA

	United States			*Western Europe*			*Eastern Europe*		
	Tot.	Males	Fem.	Tot.	Males	Fem.	Tot.	Males	Fem.
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Has good relations with teachers									
Percent of teachers	23	27	16	21	21	24	37	35	42
students	32	31	34	22	17	29	38	33	50
others	24	25	24	10	11	9	14	15	12
Seems to enjoy children, students									
Percent of teachers	58	54	66	54	47	72	65	60	76
students	43	41	46	18	14	23	50	52	44
others	43	45	40	27	20	34	25	23	30
Helps students outside of class									
Percent of teachers	38	34	46	28	27	29	45	39	62
students	12	11	13	5	3	7	30	32	25
others	15	19	10	6	7	5	7	4	12

TABLE 12
REASONS FOR CHOOSING TEACHING AS AN OCCUPATION, ALL MEDIA; BY COUNTRY AND AREA

	U.S.	WEST EUR. Total	Great Brit.	West Germ.	France	EAST EUR. Total	Poland	Czechslov.	Hungary
Percent of stories indicating any reason	% 29	% 38	% 32	% 42	% 54	% 35	% 14	% 41	% 64
Total no. of reasons indicated (100%)	N 104	N 167	N 71	N 71	N 25	N 87	N 11	N 48	N 28
Types of reasons (as % of total no.):	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Lifetime professional career	31	45	55	45	20	73	45	69	82
Temporary occupation (until marriage, etc.)	10	11	10	10	20	1	9	--	--
Need to support family, dependents	5	6	7	3	12	1	--	4	--
Love of children	6	10	8	11	12	7	9	10	4
Other reasons	49	27	19	29	36	18	36	16	19

TABLE 13
REASONS FOR GIVING UP (OR PLANNING TO GIVE UP) TEACHING, ALL MEDIA; BY AREA

	United States	Western Europe	Eastern Europe
Percent of stories indicating any reason	% 29	% 27	% 14
Total no. of reasons indicated (100%)	N 100	N 118	N 33
Types of reasons (as % of total no.):	%	%	%
Marriage	19	30	3
Inadequate salary, too much work	7	9	--
Frustrations, conflicts	26	9	15
Discharge	17	20	27
Retirement	2	7	15
Going on to better or higher occupations	6	2	12
Other reasons	23	23	28

TABLE 14

TRAITS AND ACTIVITIES TEACHERS "EMPHASIZE MOST," ALL MEDIA; BY COUNTRY AND AREA

	U.S.	WEST EUR. Total	Great Brit.	West Germ.	France	EAST EUR. Total	Po-land	Czech slov.	Hun-gary
Percent of stories portraying teacher emphasis on traits, etc.	% 62	% 57	% 54	% 57	% 76	% 58	% 47	% 57	% 80
Total no. of traits and activities emphasized (100%)	N 323	N 337	N 158	N 133	N 46	N 152	N 37	N 69	N 44
Types of traits and activities emphasized (as % of total no.):	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Exactness, neatness	2	6	5	7	4	4	8	3	2
Taking care of property	2	--	--	1	--	1	--	3	--
Getting along with others; being kind, helpful	14	16	18	16	9	13	19	13	9
Thinking for oneself	7	9	6	11	9	7	5	6	7
Obedience, discipline	12	21	17	26	15	15	14	17	11
Mastering subject matter; correct expression	24	15	13	16	22	17	27	12	18
Acquiring useful skills or talents	7	5	9	2	2	13	8	6	27
Being of service to community, nation	8	5	3	5	11	17	11	23	14
Solving personal problems	18	18	26	9	20	9	3	12	11
Solving social or scientific problems	5	5	3	7	9	4	5	6	--

TABLE 15

TRAITS AND ACTIVITIES TEACHERS "EMPHASIZE MOST" BY LEVEL AND TYPE OF EDUCATION ASSOCIATED WITH THE PORTRAYALS; BY AREA

	United States			Western Europe			Eastern Europe		
Level of educ.[1]...	Pr.	Se.	Hi.	Pr.	Se.	Hi.	Pr.	Se.	Hi.
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Percent of stories portraying teacher emphasis on traits, etc.	65	61	63	78	66	40	72	60	39
	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
Total no. of traits and activities emphasized (100%)	64	121	131	74	159	72	62	49	31
Types of traits and activities emphasized (as % of total no.):	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Exactness, neatness	--	2	3	5	4	6	2	8	3
Taking care of property	2	3	--	--	1	--	2	2	--
Getting along with others; being kind, helpful	25	13	11	20	17	11	23	10	--
Thinking for oneself	5	4	12	4	8	13	5	4	16
Obedience, discipline	16	17	6	20	24	15	10	22	16
Mastering subject matter; correct expression	20	25	25	16	16	19	14	27	10
Acquiring useful skills or talents	5	7	9	4	6	6	6	10	23
Being of service to community, nation	9	8	8	4	4	7	24	6	16
Solving personal problems	16	19	18	22	20	13	13	6	7
Solving social or scientific problems	3	2	9	4	1	11	2	4	10

[1] Primary school, Secondary school, Higher education.

TABLE 16

PERCENT OF CHARACTERIZATIONS AFFIRMING SELECTED PROPOSITIONS ABOUT TRAITS AND ACTIVITIES; ALL MEDIA, BY AREA

	United States			Western Europe			Eastern Europe		
	Tot. %	Males %	Fem. %	Tot. %	Males %	Fem. %	Tot. %	Males %	Fem. %
Demands strict attention									
Percent of teachers	20	23	15	22	24	18	44	44	42
Values exactness, orderliness									
Percent of teachers	15	16	14	14	15	13	39	39	38
Takes part in professional organization, activity									
Percent of teachers	9	10	7	7	6	7	13	14	8
Member of student organization (fraternity, sorority, etc.)									
Percent of students	7	8	5	1	1	1	12	13	14
Knows many subjects									
Percent of teachers	23	26	17	23	26	16	45	44	48
students	9	8	10	14	17	10	23	26	18
others	9	10	8	8	11	5	10	15	2
More interested in knowledge than in many activities									
Percent of teachers	22	26	15	20	26	8	41	43	38
students	9	9	9	10	12	8	16	19	11
others	5	5	5	4	4	4	6	5	7
Takes part in many activities									
Percent of teachers	20	19	21	20	22	16	43	40	50
students	27	24	31	22	23	20	48	53	37
others	19	18	21	20	21	20	21	26	12
Is a leader and organizer									
Percent of teachers	22	24	16	21	22	21	34	39	40
students	18	19	15	13	17	7	30	34	20
others	17	23	7	17	23	11	13	18	5
Participates in community affairs									
Percent of teachers	15	11	22	13	14	12	40	41	38
students	4	6	2	4	3	5	17	17	18
others	17	18	15	8	11	5	24	25	20
Participates in cultural activities									
Percent of teachers	10	10	10	13	14	9	37	25	68
students	6	6	8	8	8	8	26	24	31
others	6	5	8	8	6	10	15	12	20

TABLE 17

ADMINISTRATIVE ACTION AFFECTING TEACHERS, ALL MEDIA; BY COUNTRY AND AREA

	U.S.	WEST EUR. Total	Great Brit.	West Germ.	France	EAST EUR. Total	Po-land	Czech slov.	Hun-gary
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Percent of stories depicting such action	32	22	21	18	41	23	14	15	64
	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
Total no. of actions depicted (100%)	115	95	46	30	19	56	10	18	28
Types of action (as % of total no.):	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Hiring, firing	24	36	39	47	10	21	10	23	25
Supervising, assisting, advising	17	14	17	10	10	12	20	18	7
Reassigning to other schools, duties	5	10	6	10	21	11	20	18	4
Controlling, reprimanding, disciplining	19	23	13	23	47	18	30	18	14
Other	34	16	24	10	10	38	20	23	50

TABLE 18

PERCENT OF STORIES AFFIRMING SELECTED PROPOSITIONS ABOUT TEACHER-ADMINISTRATOR RELATIONSHIPS; ALL MEDIA, BY AREA

	United States	Western Europe	Eastern Europe
	%	%	%
Teachers have a voice in decisions which affect them	9	7	16
Administrators help teachers whenever they can	12	6	6
Teachers are free to criticize administrators	5	3	3

TABLE 19

SELECTED LEISURE TIME ACTIVITIES OF TEACHERS AND STUDENTS, ALL MEDIA; BY COUNTRY AND AREA

	U.S.	WEST EUR. Total	Great Brit.	West Germ.	France	EAST EUR. Total	Poland	Czechslov.	Hungary
Teachers									
Total no. of leisure time activities recorded (100%)	322	357	190	121	46	148	27	88	33
Average no. per teacher	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Types of leisure time activities (as % of total no. recorded):	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Reading, movies, radio-TV, cultural activities	20	29	27	29	37	37	56	20	67
Drinking, dancing, smoking	27	25	23	31	15	11	15	11	6
Attending or participating in sports	16	16	18	11	20	10	7	13	6
Entertaining, visiting, dating	37	31	33	30	28	42	22	56	21
Students									
Total no. of leisure time activities recorded (100%)	463	445	213	187	45	317	72	211	34
Average no. per student	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Types of leisure time activities (as % of total no. recorded):	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Reading, movies, radio-TV, cultural activities	15	21	23	16	35	31	46	24	47
Drinking, dancing, smoking	24	29	24	35	27	21	17	22	21
Attending or participating in sports	18	18	19	18	18	21	18	23	15
Entertaining, visiting, dating	43	32	34	31	20	27	19	31	18

TABLE 20

NON-TEACHING ACTIVITIES OF TEACHERS, ALL MEDIA; BY COUNTRY AND AREA

	U.S.	WEST EUR. Total	Great Brit.	West Germ.	France	EAST EUR. Total	Po-land	Czech slov.	Hun-gary
Percent of stories depicting such activities	% 56	% 43	% 47	% 31	% 43	% 42	% 23	% 44	% 70
Total no. of activities depicted (100%)	N 266	N 224	N 130	N 55	N 38	N 102	N 17	N 51	N 31
Types of activities (as % of total no.):	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Professional (organization, meetings, studies)	16	10	8	11	16	20	--	10	48
Community (PTA, civic, religious, political)	9	12	5	24	18	28	23	29	26
Popular recreation and sports	34	30	30	38	21	18	30	26	--
Business, cultural, social activities	40	47	56	27	45	35	48	36	26

TABLE 21

PERCENT OF STORIES AFFIRMING SELECTED PROPOSITIONS ABOUT SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS; ALL MEDIA, BY AREA

	United States %	Western Europe %	Eastern Europe %
Citizens participate in school affairs			
Percent of all stories	13	6	13
Percent of stories related to:			
primary schools	23	14	21
secondary schools	15	8	9
higher education	6	1	7
several, other	17	2	18
The average citizen has much to say about how schools should be run			
Percent of stories	6	4	9
Parents come to school to complain			
Percent of stories	6	2	3
School people represent national, professional, scientific values			
Percent of stories	13	7	21
School people lead their communities			
Percent of stories	11	4	10
School and community are in conflict			
Percent of stories	12	8	10

Appendix VI

INSTRUMENTS OF ANALYSIS

The classification systems used in the comparative analysis of press and of mass media fictional and dramatic materials are reproduced in the following two Appendixes.

Appendix VI-A contains the classification system for press materials (FORM A). Appendixes II-C and II-D present the results of analyses based on the use of FORM A. Coding instructions and a sample answer sheet appear at the end of FORM A.

Appendix VI-B is a reproduction of FORM B used in the comparative analysis of fictional and dramatic units, and FORM C used in the analysis of characters. Sample keysort card layouts used to record answers will be found at the end of the forms.

Appendix VI-A

FORM A

Classification System for Press Materials

(Answer sheet and directions for coding and punching
IBM cards are at the end.)

SECTION I

1 Country

0 U.S.
1 England
2 France
3 Austria
4 West Germany
5 East Germany
6 Poland
7 Hungary
8 Czechoslovakia
9 U.S.S.R.

2 Medium

1 radio program
2 TV program (except feature movie)
3 feature movie on TV
4 feature movie, theatrical
5 magazine cover
6 magazine (other than cover)
7 newspaper, front page
8 newspaper, inside (or don't know)
9

3-4-5 Serial number

6 Type of content

0 general news
1 article, feature
2 photo, illustration, comic, cartoon
3 editorial
4 column, special section
5 "human interest" story
6 sports page, section
7 advertising, text of official document
8 bookreview, film or stage, etc. review
9 letter to editor

7 Type and level of education

0 none, unclear, unknown, mixed
1 public general; more than one level
2 public nursery and primary
3 public secondary
4 public higher
5 public specialized institution
6 private or parochial; more than one level
7 private nursery or primary
8 private secondary
9 private higher and adult, community, specialized

8 Authorship

0 anonymous (not wire story)
1 byline - staff or freelance (except as below)
2 regular columnist; education writer
3 signed but not otherwise identified
4 government official; school board member
5 parent
6 teacher; professor; pedagogical expert
7 school administrator
8 student
9 wire story

9 Individual reference or emphasis; biographical

0 none, unclear, mixed, irrelevant
1 businessman, trade or vocational expert
2 noted figure in science, social science, industry, technology
3 noted figure in art, humanities, law
4 government official, military figure
5 parent
6 teacher, professor, pedagogical expert or authority
7 school administrator, school board member
8 student
9 celebrity figure in sports, mass media, entertainment, etc.

FORM A (continued)

10 Circulation class or official status of newspaper

0 not known
1 official ruling party or government paper (even if circulation known)
2 not official party or government paper, circulation not known
3 under 9,999
4 10,000 to 49,999
5 50,000 to 99,999
6 100,000 to 249,999
7 250,000 to 999,999
8 1,000,000 to 1,999,999
9 2,000,000 or over

11 General tendency of story as a whole

0
1 very critical, opposed, dissatisfied, unfavorable
2 quite critical, etc.
3 more critical, etc. than supporting, etc.
4 neither, no tendency, balanced, mixed, both, uncertain
5 more supporting, etc. than critical, etc.
6 quite satisfied, supporting, approving, favorable
7 very satisfied, favorable, etc.
8
9

SECTION II

12 Domestic arts, cosmetics, fashions

13 crafts, hobbies, gadgets, home and garden
14 sewing, cooking, home economics
15 fashion, models, clothes, style, cosmetics, beauty aids, training

16 Association with history, historical events

17 teaching of history; history as subject
18 history of institutions (school, church, family, etc.); commemoration
19 history of arts, culture
20 historical precedent; "first;" record
21 historical reference; comparison with past
22 World War II; changes since the war
23
24
25

26 Religion, church, clergy; religious customs, etc.

27 religious education, teaching; parochial school, college
28 religious figures, occupations
29 religious institutions
30 religious philosophy; theology
31 religious ethics, conduct
32 religious ceremonies, holidays, rituals, customs
33 religious freedom; religion and the state
34
35

36 Superstition, supernatural, occult, mystical

37
38
39
40

41 Nature, animals, agriculture

42 agriculture, farming, breeding and raising animals; agricultural education, training
43 forces of nature; meteorology; geology, exploration, discovery, geography
44 natural catastrophes, disasters; disaster services, training, fight against nature; hardships; survival
45

46 Financial success, failure, hardship

47 success, prize, inheritance, getting or being rich or well-off
48 search for wealth
49 meager existence, hardship
50 financial failure, downfall, bankruptcy
51 absolute poverty
52 owning, paying for, property; possessions
53
54
55

56 Injury, illness, deformity; medicine; health; physical culture

57 injury; first aid; accidents
58 illness; medicine; medical, and nursing education

FORM A (continued)

(Injury, etc. continued from previous page)

59 deformity, physical handicap; therapy, rehabilitation
60 public health, hygiene; health education
61 physical education; physical culture
62

63 Mental illness, abnormality; cure, treatment

64 mental illness, disorder, psychiatry, therapy; training
65 mental deficiency, retardation, therapy; training
66 mental health, hygiene; emotional adjustment
67

68 Alcoholism, drug addiction

69 heavy drinking, alcoholism, cure
70 narcotics; drug addiction; therapy, cure
71

72 Science, scientists (including social science); technology

73 physical and natural science, scientists
74 social science, social studies, scientists
75 inventions, new achievements in science; space science
76 general science programs, education, theory
77 mathematics
78 technology, engineering
79
80
81

82 Entertainment, mass media, sports, recreation

83 general entertainment and personalities
84 sports, sports figures, athletics, racing
85 recreation, parties, social games play, leisure
86 press (newspapers, magazines, reporting)
87 radio-television (and personalities)
88 film (and personalities)
89 advertising
90 mass amusements (circus, vaudeville, carnival)
91
92

93 Minority and foreign; group relations

94 ethnic, racial, cultural minorities (but see group relations below)
95 religious minorities
96 national minorities; immigrants
97 foreign countries; friendly or neutral
98 foreign countries, unfriendly, hostile
99 international exchange, contacts, learning about other countries
100 group relations; equality of opportunity

101 Mechanical accidents, failures

102 collision, crash, wreck, accident; safety
103 industrial accidents; safety
104 fires, explosions; safety
105 mechanical failure, breakdown
106

107 Armed forces; military

108 draft, military service, military training; training camps; national defense, civil defense
109 ROTC
110 military careers, personalities
111 military supplies, equipment, armament, weapons
112

113 Physical violence, murder, war, suicide

114 violence
115 murder, attempted murder
116 war, threat of war
117 suicide
118
119

120 Intimate or close relation between the sexes

121 romance, love

(Intimate relation between the sexes, continued from previous page)

122 sex relations; sex as theme
123 prostitution
124 sadism
125 sex education
126 obscenity, lewdness
127 "sex appeal"
128
129

130 Home, marriage, family, parents, children, old age

131 home, family, domestic problems
132 marriage, engagement
133 marriage, family life education
134 parent-child relations
135 old age, geriatrics, retirement
136 vital statistics, births, deaths
137

138 Public affairs, government, law, politics, patriotism

139 politics, legislation, politicians and families including statesmen, legislators, government officials and agencies (except as below)
140 law enforcement, police, police training
141 courts, judges, lawyers, study of law; laws; constitution
142 prisons, penology
143 political science; study of government; citizenship education
144 subversion, disloyalty to government; radicalism
145 patriotism; support of social system
146 self-government, freedom, liberty, national independence
147 international affairs; diplomacy; study of —
148
149

150 Crime

151 crime, criminals, vandalism
152 corruption, rackets, "fixes"
153 crime detection
154 criminology
155 political crimes, prisoners
156
157

158 Business, industry, labor, production, construction

159 business, commerce, trade; busine leaders; business and commerce ed cation, clerical, training; trade associations
160 industry, mining, manufacturing; leaders, industrial education, training; polytechnic, shop
161 productivity, production (general discussion)
162 building, construction; city plan ning; urban and suburban development; architecture
163 transportation, communications; driver education
164 labor, labor organizations, labor leaders; unions
165 employment, unemployment
166
167
168

169 Literature, fine arts, music, classics, humanities

170 literature, writers, books, publishing
171 classics, humanities, esthetics, philosophy, liberal arts in gener
172 music, musicians; concerts, operas composers, orchestras
173 singing; singers
174 dancing; dancers
175 theater, drama, acting, actors, st
176 painting, painters, graphic arts; exhibits
177 sculpting, sculptures, statues
178 poetry
179 language; learning of language; reading, reading instruction
180

181 Royalty, aristocracy, nobility, "high society"

182 royalty, nobility, aristocracy
183 "high society;" socialites; societ news, affairs
184
185

FORM A (continued)

SECTION III

186 Goals, values, aims of education, teaching, learning; philosophy of education

- 187 learning subject matter; 3 R's; "fundamentals;" get degree, get education
- 188 development of good citizens; practicing democracy; solving social problems; participation in public affairs; equality; liberty
- 189 ideals, values, moral qualities; ethics
- 190 vocational, professional skills, competence: to be close to work and life
- 191 social advancement; to make good in life
- 192 discovery, exploration of new knowledge; solving scientific problems
- 193 transmission of historical cultural heritage; cultural enrichment; liberal arts
- 194 direct service to community, nation; building country, society; serve humanity
- 195 getting along with others; being kind, helpful
- 196 obedience, discipline, good behavior
- 197 solving personal problems
- 198 thinking for one's self; critical thinking
- 199 hard work; excellence; productivity

200 School facilities, resources

- 201 buildings, classrooms; expansion; renovation, decoration; shortage of buildings
- 202 faculty, staff as a group: supply of teachers
- 203 school equipment; laboratories; supplies (except athletic); shop facilities
- 204 libraries, books
- 205 playgrounds, campus; grounds
- 206 audio-visual and other communication equipment; media and cultural resources
- 207 dormitory and living facilities
- 208 athletic fields, equipment, facilities, gyms
- 209 eating facilities; school lunches
- 210

211 Special educational aims and functions

- 212 education for women
- 213 education for minority groups
- 214 education for workers and working class children
- 215 day care centers, boarding schools, creches
- 216 rural education; regional, provincial education
- 217 nursery schools
- 218 work experience; on-the-job training; special technical institutes
- 219 counselling, advising, guidance
- 220 youth programs; scouts, pioneers
- 221 veteran's education
- 222 education of orphans, handicapped, gifted
- 223 adult, community, extension, correspondence, evening courses, education for working youth

224 Teaching methods and media

- 225 reading, educational publishing, knowledge of books
- 226 lecturing
- 227 demonstrating; models; 3-dimensiona materials
- 228 flat graphic materials
- 229 projected or sound-recorder materia
- 230 broadcasts
- 231 field trips, visits
- 232 theater, drama
- 233 concerts, music, singing, dance, other arts
- 234 museums, exhibits
- 235 teaching machines, programmed instruction
- 236

237 Activities; special events (except study and work)

- 238 competitive athletics (inter-mural)
- 239 intramural athletics; physical edu- cation
- 240 hiking, climbing, nature activity
- 241 play activities
- 242 organized clubs
- 243 school opening
- 244 graduation, commencement
- 245 anniversaries, celebrations, festivities, holidays
- 246 performances, shows, parades

FORM A (continued)

(Activities, etc. continued from previous page)

247 vacation activities
248 political activities
249

250 Financial aspects of schools, education

251 cost of schools for parents, students; school taxes
252 cost to community, state
253 federal (national) aid
254 building and operating costs
255 private grants and trusts; gifts by individuals
256 general stress on economy; taking good care of property
257 fellowships, scholarships, stipends, free materials, other assistance to students
258
259

260 School law, organization, administration, personnel

261 state, national governmental and legislative action, discussion, reform; personnel
262 citizen participation in school administration, curriculum
263 school board, district, trustees; elected officials and functions
264 school administration, administrators
265 staff recruiting, firing; personnel policies, discipline, resigning
266
267 enrollments; openings for students
268 curriculum organization, planning; courses of study
269

270 Aspects of learning, class conduct

271 grades, examination; student progress and achievement
272 failures, drop-outs
273 competition, contest
274 other incentives, rewards of learning
275 role of student self-government, organizations in learning
276 punishment; academic discipline
277 educational research, experimentation
278 amount of material to be learned (too much, too little, just right, etc.)
279

280 Aspects of student life, values

281 learning, studying, taking exams
282 sports, physical education (as as pect of student life)
283 social activities, romance; socia aspects of clubs, organizations
284 life in dormitories, fraternitie sororities, all-day and boarding schools
285 vacation time, play time
286 behavior, discipline, attendance
287 material hardships; labor; help build schools, etc.
288 student health and safety
289 clubs, organizations, out-of-scho learning activities

290 Aspects of academic life

291
292 recreation, leisure, social activities
293 prizes, awards
294 teacher salary, economic status; welfare, benefits
295 faculty meeting, action
296 teaching load, duties; research; responsibilities
297 political aspects
298 academic freedom; tenure
299 teacher training, qualifications, schools of education requirement for certificate; certification; in-service training
300 professional organizations, unio their policies
301

302 Aspects of academic personality and relationships

303 ideals, values
304 breadth of interests
305 relationship to life, work
306 relations with students
307 relations with parents
308 relations with colleagues, super subordinates
309 relations with community, societ contribution to society
310 feeling toward teaching
311
312

FORM A (continued)

313 Relations of school (learning) to community, society, world

- 314 role in supporting social system (capitalism, socialism, communism)
- 315 role of school, etc. in world; international responsibilities
- 316 responsibility of society, industry, in the learning of students
- 317 school-community interaction; PTA, etc.
- 318 role of parent in education
- 319 segregation, integration, discrimination (Mark direction in re integration: 1 - oppose, 3 - support)

FORM A
CODING INSTRUCTIONS
(See sample coding sheet on following page)

1. Code lines 1 through 11 on coding sheet according to Section I questions and categories. Leave none blank.

2. Enter each topic in Sections II and III noted in the press item in the space under the number in parentheses which directly precedes it. Always enter three digits for topic codes.

3. Immediately following the topic code, enter a direction code in parentheses according to the following: (1) mostly critical or opposed; (2) factual, no tendency, evenly mixed or uncertain; (3) mostly supporting, praise, satisfaction.

4. Enter the topic and direction codes which best indicate the headline and lead, or major topic of the unit, on lines 12 through 15.

5. On lines 17 through 51, write the total number of topic codes entered in the spaces beneath each line. If none, write "0"; if more than 9, write "9".

6. Write consecutive serial numbers underlined immediately before each topic code number, beginning with "01".

7. Leave line 16 blank.

FORM A
PUNCHING INSTRUCTIONS
(See sample coding sheet on following page)

1. Two types of cards are to be punched from each Form A sheet: one story ca and as many topic cards as there are topics coded for the unit.

2. Columns 1 through 15 are the same on both types of cards - follow lines 1 through 15.

3. For story cards: punch "0" in column 16. In columns 17 through 51, punch the number on the corresponding lines (17-51). In columns 52 and 53, punch the highest serial (underlined) numbe on the sheet.

4. For topic cards: punch "1" in column 16. Punch the topic (underlined) num ber in columns 17 and 18. Punch the topic code in columns 19, 20, and 21. Punch the direction code (in parenthe in column 22. Follow this procedure for each topic on the sheet, using a separate card for each.

FORM A ANSWER SHEET

VI-A-8

Clip unit or summary to this form.

1_____(country)

2_____(medium, etc.)

3_____(serial no.)

4_____(-"-)

5_____(-"-)

6_____(type)

7_____(educ.)

8_____(source)

9_____(indiv. ref.)

10_____(circ., etc.)

11_____(gen. tendency)

12_____(headline
and
13_____ lead
and
14_____ topic no.
and
15_____ direction)

16_____(control)*

17_____(012)

18_____(016)

19_____(026)

20_____(036)

21_____(041)

22_____(046)

23_____(056)

24_____(063)

25_____(068)

26_____(072)

27_____(082)

28_____(093)

29_____(101)

30_____(107)

31_____(113)

32_____(120)

33_____(130)

34_____(138)

35_____(150)

36_____(158)

37_____(169)

38_____(181)

39_____(186)

40_____(200)

41_____(211)

42_____(224)

43_____(237)

44_____(250)

45_____(260)

46_____(270)

47_____(280)

48_____(290)

49_____(302)

50_____(313)

51_____(325)

*For story card punch 0; for topic card punch serial no. of topics in story See control no. in red.

Appendix VI-B

FORMS B AND C

Classification systems for fictional and dramatic units and characters

(Sample keysort card used to record answers will be found at the end of each form)

Instructions to Forms B and C.

Analysts will be given specific instructions regarding media and materials in which to search for relevant content. With certain exceptions, major emphasis will be upon fiction, and drama in popular magazines, motion pictures, and broadcast material. The story or article (including illustrations, if any), film, or program will be considered a unit of material. The significant occurrence of a relevant element makes the entire unit the subject of analysis.

In general, relevant elements include portrayal, appearance, description or discussion of the following:

1. Teacher, professor, instructor, coach, other instructional or teaching personnel employed by formal educational institution, even if appears in roles other than teaching or instruction. (Not private tutor or governess.)

2. School or college administrator (supervisor, principal, dean, president, etc.), whether major role is as administrator or other.

3. Student or pupil when associated with formal educational institution and presented in a student role or in interaction with teacher or administrator.

4. Class, classroom or classroom instruction in any formal educational institution.

5. School or college life in general associated with any formal educational institution.

6. Any public or private school, formal educational program or institution from kindergarten through primary, secondary, and higher education, even when presented in aspects other than primarily educational. Also trade and professional schools, colleges, academies, military and reform schools, other formal educational institutions. Do not include apprenticeship, on-the-job or other informal training programs or educational programs when not conducted by a primarily educational institution.

The relevant element is significant if it is not likely to be overlooked by the average reader or viewer, if it is (or likely to be) mentioned in summary or review of the material, and if it is sufficiently delineated to make analysis possible.

FORM B is the basic classification form. Separate FORM B card should be filled out for each unit of material analyzed.

FORM C is the character analysis card. Separate FORM C card should be filled out for each character analyzed. Select the most important and/or representative characters in each unit for analysis and description. Characters in the following categories should be selected:

1. Teachers, etc. (see 1. above)
2. Administrators, etc. (see 2. above)
3. Students, pupils (see 3. above)
4. Friend, relative, spouse or other associate of each of the above
5. Other professional (lawyer, doctor, engineer, etc.) playing a significant part in the unit
6. Community representative (board member, trustee, government official) having official connection with school or educational institution

It is important to select a well-rounded representation of characters from each unit. Include all major relevant characters, and such others as necessary to indicate each character's main relationships to other people.

WRITE FULL SUMMARY ON THE BLANK SIDE OF EACH FORM. QUOTE, CITE, ATTACH ILLUSTRATIONS OR COPIES WHEN POSSIBLE. MAKE PERSONAL REMARKS, IF ANY, ON BLANK SIDE, LABELED "COMMENTS"

Form B (side I)

Write legibly in ink, or type. Fill in separate FORM B for each program, story, or film. Answer all questions on the basis of evidence or clear inference in material. If there is not sufficient basis in material for answering a question, leave it blank; explain if necessary. This does not apply to scales 13-26. Mark all scales as instructed.

TOP OF FORM. A: Write in your (analyst's) name. B: Write in M if male, F if female. C: Write in your age. D: Write in your occupation. E: Write in date of filling out form. F: Write in place of filling out form.

1. Medium and title. Write in parenthesis most appropriate number from list below. Write title in space after parenthesis.
   (1) Radio program (write in title of specific program, if any, not of series)
   (2) Television program (except feature movie on TV)
   (3) Feature movie on TV
   (4) Feature movie (theatrical)
   (5) Educational, documentary, other non-threatrical motion picture (not on TV)
   (6) Magazine (write in title of story, not of magazine)
   (7) Newspaper (write in title of story, not name of paper)
   (8) Book (write in title of book)
   (9) Other (specify)
   NOTE: Indicate medium in which seen or heard, not medium in which originally produced. Be sure to write in title.

2. Leave parenthesis blank. Write in space:
   Broadcast: name of show or series, if any
   Publication: name of magazine, newspaper, other publication
   Film: name of producing company, if known

3. Leave parenthesis blank. Write in space date of broadcast, publication, production.

FORM B (continued)

4. Leave parenthesis blank. Write in time of broadcast; or, if publication, author of story, etc.; or, if film, name of releasing company (if known).

5. Leave parenthesis blank. Write in as applicable name of broadcasting station and network; country of publication and name of publisher; country of producing company.

6. Does material present dramatic action, story line, narrative, or is it purely expository or descriptive? Write in parenthesis most appropriate number from list below. Explain if necessary.
   (1) Fictitious, with no claim to represent actual events or persons (even if realistic and plausible)
   (2) Claims to present true story of real events and persons (although not necessarily actual names, etc.) in dramatized or narrative form or reenactment.
   (3) Presents actuality itself (mark only for documentary broadcast of film)
   (4) No story line; exposition, demonstration, description, discussion, etc.

7. Does material clearly belong to any one of the following traditional format categories? Write in parenthesis most appropriate number from the list below. Explain if necessary.
   (1) Exploration, adventure, men's adventure story
   (2) Comedy, humor, situation comedy
   (3) Musical, song, poetry
   (4) Fantasy, fairy tale, animal characters
   (5) Horror, gothic tale
   (6) Western, cowboy, Indian, pioneer life
   (7) Detective, gangster, crime, murder mystery
   (8) Romance, confession, domestic, or family situation-type daytime serial
   (9) Expose, fan, sex-exploitation
   (10) General drama or fiction; other (explain)

8. What is the time of action presented, if any? Write in parenthesis most appropriate number from list below. Explain if necessary.
   (1) Distant past; historical (beyond lifetime of any readers, viewers)
   (2) Recent past (within lifetime of readers or viewers)
   (3) Present
   (4) Near future (within lifespan of readers, viewers)
   (5) Distant future (beyond lifespan of readers, viewers)
   (6) Several time periods
   (7) Timeless; no way to specify any time period
   NOTE: Write in exact time when given

9. Place or general setting of action. Write in parenthesis the most appropriate number from the list below. Specify, explain.
   (1) Big city, metropolitan, industrial area
   (2) Small town
   (3) Village, farm, rural area
   (4) Uninhabited or uncultivated area
   (5) Other country (not country of production)
   (6) Space, other planets
   (7) More than one, mixed, uncertain
   (8) Mythical setting; no way to specify
   NOTE: Whenever possible, write in exact place of major action

FORM B (continued)

10. Social-economic class character of place or setting of major action, if clearly identifiable. Write in parenthesis most appropriate number from list below. Explain or specify if possible.
    (1) Upper-class, luxurious, wealthy setting; palace, big estate, plush executive office, and the like.
    (2) Middle class setting; average neighborhood, home, office, business, farm
    (3) Lower or working class setting; poor neighborhood, run-down country place, home or place of work of manual workers
    (4) Mixed, uncertain
    (5) Outside of normal class structure (armed forces, illegal occupations, etc.)
    (6) Mythical, etc., no way to establish

11. Major reason(s) for selecting material. Look over the list below. Write in parenthesis the sum of all appropriate numbers. For example, if only teacher(s) appear in material, write 1; if only student(s), write 2. But if both teachers and students play a part, write 3. And so on. Explain.
    (1) Teacher(s), administrator(s), other school personnel
    (2) Student(s), pupil(s)
    (4) Class, classroom
    (8) School, college, educational institution (outside of classroom or in general)

    NOTE: Use space to explain and specify position and kind of major character(s) involved, type of classroom (age, subject matter discussed, etc.)

12. Major type of educational institution or process with which relevant elements are associated. Write in parenthesis most appropriate number from list below. In space explain and specify type of institution. When there is no clear indication whether the educational institution is private, assume that it is public and write "probably" in the space. Note that public and private institutions have different numbers.

Public	Private	
(1)	(2)	Primary school (kindergarten, elementary)
(3)	(4)	Secondary (jr. high, high school)
(5)	(6)	Regular college (Jr. College, University)
(7)	(8)	Special higher education (professional, military)
(9)	(10)	Other (specify)
(0)		None, unknown

NOTE: Use space to describe, specify

13-26. Rate overall portrayal of relevant elements found in the material. Rate on the basis of your impression of the general characteristics and nature of element (or interaction of elements) indicated in answer to question 11 as major reason for selection. In other words, give total judgement of those things presented in material which have to do with teachers, administrators, students, and schools. Consider these elements one overall concept.

Place an X in the one space on each line closer to the word which fits your total impression of this overall concept better than its opposite. If one of the adjectives seems very appropriate, mark space right next to it like this:
small:X:_:_:_:_:_:large, or this: small:_:_:_:_:_:X:large
If quite appropriate, mark like this: small:_:X:_:_:_:_:large, or like this: small:_:_:_:_:X:_:large. If somewhat appropriate, mark like this: small:_:_:X:_:_:_:large, or: small:_:_:_:_:X:_:_:large. If you cannot decide, mark center space. But mark every scale.

NOTE: Rate according to your impression of what is presented; do not express personal interpretation; do not express judgment of artistic or esthetic quality.

Mark every scale; do not skip any
Mark each scale only once
Mark scales on one side or other when possible; use center space sparingly
Mark carefully but rapidly; do not compare ratings on previous scales

27. Examine the following list of themes and aspects of life. Then turn the card so that the boxed numbers along the right edge read 1 to 22 from right to left. Now encircle the one or two boxed numbers that correspond to the major themes, like this: 6 ; mark all boxed numbers that correspond to themes and aspects playing any significant part in the material, like this 12 . Remember: encircle two major themes; X-out as many as play any significant part.

(1) Domestic arts, crafts, hobbies; home and garden; needlework, cooking sewing, clothes, cosmetics, beauty aids, fashion; collections, home gadgets, etc.

(2) Association with historical events.

(3) Religion, church, clergy. Also religious customs, rituals.

(4) Superstition, supernatural, occult, mystical.

(5) Animals, nature (jungle, mountains, ocean, rivers), forces of nature and the elements; exploration, discovery, and natural catastrophies. Also agriculture, breeding, conservation of natural resources.

(6) Financial success; prize, inheritance; financial hardship, poverty.

(7) Injury, illness, deformity -- physical and organic; medicine, treatment

(8) Mental illness, deficiency, abnormality; serious mental disorder; amnesia, phobias; cure, therapy, rehabilitation.

(9) Alcoholism, heavy drinking; narcotics, drug addiction and cure.

(10) Science and scientist (including social science); technology

(11) Entertainment, amusements, sports, show business, recreation, mass media (press, radio-TV, film, advertising).

(12) Minority groups and people; foreign countries and people; non-whites, religious and ethnic minorities.

(13) Mechanical accidents, catastrophies; explosion, wreck, crash, mechanical failure, etc.

(14) Armed forces.

(15) Physical violence, murder, war, suicide.

(16) Intimate or close relationship between the sexes, whether cooperative or hostile; love, sex, prostitution, sadism, etc.

FORM B (continued)

(17) Home, family, marriage, domestic problems; parents, children, youth, old age.

(18) Public affairs and agencies, including law enforcement, courts, hospitals, prisons, legislation, politics (domestic & foreign).

(19) Crime, corruption, rackets, "fixes", crime detection.

(20) Business, industry, labor, production, construction.

(21) Schools, education, training, study, self-development.

(22) Literature, fine arts, music, classics, humanities.

28. Each of the following propositions relates to some aspect of teaching, learning, or schools. Consider each proposition according to its relevance to, and agreement or disagreement with, any clear statement, message, moral, or inference derived from the material. (Do not express personal agreement or disagreement.)

Rate each statement by marking the corresponding boxed number along the top edge of the card in the following way:

If proposition is not relevant to anything in material, do not mark.

If proposition is supported more than refuted in the material, write a plus sign directly over the boxed number like this: $\boxed{12}$.

If proposition is refuted more than supported in the material, write a minus sign over the boxed number like this: $\boxed{3}$.

If proposition is relevant but tendency unclear, encircle boxed number like this: $\boxed{18}$.

NOTE: Mark only if proposition is clearly relevant to material analyzed.

(1) Teachers have much to do with students outside of class

(2) Students seem to enjoy making things harder for the teacher

(3) The average citizen has much to say about how schools should be run

(4) The rewards of teaching come late in life

(5) The school program is well organized

(6) Formal education is of little use in solving real problems of life

(7) Teachers have a voice in decisions which affect them

(8) Students (or teachers) shown are of varied nationality or race

(9) Teaching is an enjoyable job

(10) School people represent national (or professional, scientific, etc.) values and not necessarily those of their community

FORM B (continued)

(11) Administrators help teachers whenever they can

(12) Parents only come to school when they have a complaint to make

(13) School life is a nostalgic memory

(14) School and community are sometimes in conflict

(15) Learning is of no immediate use but it pays off later in life

(16) Sororities, fraternities are the center of college life

(17) Teachers mold the character of students

(18) School people sometimes lead, not only follow, their communities

(19) Teachers have a very heavy workload

(20) Students have a lot of fun at school

(21) Democracy can be successfully practiced in the classroom

(22) Teachers live on meager salary

(23) The school program is related to real-life problems

(24) Teachers are free to criticize administrators

(25) Learning is of immediate use and benefit

(26) Teachers mold the character of students

(27) Citizens participate in school affairs

29. Is there clear statement or indication of goals (purposes, reasons) of education (teaching, learning, study, research)? If so, write in parenthesis the most appropriate number from list below. If not on list, leave parenthesis blank, state others. Explain if necessary, or state other goals also indicated.
(1) Learning of subject matter; the 3 R's, etc.
(2) Development of good citizens; practicing democracy
(3) Ideals, values, moral qualities
(4) Vocational or professional skills or competence
(5) Social advancement; to make good in life
(6) Discovery, exploration of new knowledge
(7) Transmission of historical cultural heritage
(8) Direct service to community or nation

30. Is there clear indication of main reason for either success or failure of school program or educational enterprise (teaching, learning, study)? If so, indicate by writing in appropriate number (follow same instructions as above in this and all succeeding questions).

Reason for: success	failure	
(1)	(2)	Personality of teacher(s)
(3)	(4)	Personality of student(s)
(5)	(6)	Nature of school program
(7)	(8)	Nature of subject matter
(9)	(10)	Circumstances beyond control

FORM B (continued)

31. What major problems (if any) of school or the educational process are presented in material? Write in number of main problem; state others, explain.
    (1) Discipline of students
    (2) Lack of ability or preparation of students; lack of seriousness
    (3) Incompetence of teachers
    (4) Incompetence of administrators
    (5) Lack of adequate resources, facilities
    (6) Prejudice, segregation, integration, group conflicts
    (7) Relations with parents
    (8) Relations with community
    (9) Other outside interference

32. Which of these, or what other things, if any, do teachers emphasize most? (in or out of school) Specify, explain, state others.
    (1) Exactness, neatness
    (2) Taking care of property
    (3) Getting along with others; being kind, helpful
    (4) Thinking for oneself
    (5) Obedience, discipline
    (6) Mastering subject matter; correct expression
    (7) Acquiring useful skills or talents
    (8) Being of service to community, nation
    (9) Solving personal problems
    (10) Solving social or scientific problems

33. Which of these, or what other things, if any, do students appear to strive for most? (in or out of school) Specify, explain, state others.
    (1) Learn, study, pass exams
    (2) Cut classes, get out of work, have fun
    (3) Find romance
    (4) Find thrill, adventure
    (5) Competition, rivalry, achievement, outside of study
    (6) Acceptance, recognition, belonging

34. What is the most prominent type of classroom atmosphere shown, if any? Describe, state others.
    (1) Class is generally eager, attentive, orderly
    (2) Class is very formal, passive
    (3) Class is informal but orderly
    (4) Class is noisy and lively but under control
    (5) Class is rebellious and sullen but under control
    (6) Class is out of control
    (7) Class is disinterested, bored, apathetic

35. What is the most prominent type of classroom activity shown, if any? Describe, state others.
    (1) Teacher only lectures, explains, questions
    (2) Teacher also demonstrates, uses materials, audio-visual aids, etc.
    (3) Teacher mostly engaged in personal problems (of self or students)
    (4) Teacher mostly engaged in controlling or disciplining students
    (5) Teacher, students discuss subject matter or class activity
    (6) Students dominate classroom activity; teacher only in background
    (7) Somebody other than teacher dominates classroom activity
    (8) Examination, testing, is major activity

FORM B (continued)

36. What is the most prominent non-classroom school activity shown, if any? Describe, state others.
(1) Athletics
(2) Counseling or advising
(3) Life in dormitories, sororities, fraternities
(4) Life on school or college campus, neighborhood, community
(5) Assembly or other school gathering
(6) Faculty meeting or conference
(7) School board meeting
(8) Graduation

37. Is there any portrayal or indication of love, romance, flirtation, or sexual desire involving teachers, students, administrators? If so, indicate major romantic pair by writing sum of appropriate numbers in parenthesis. Indicate all other relationships by writing sums of each pair of appropriate numbers in space. Describe and explain outcome of major relationship, and as many others as possible.
(1) Teacher(s)
(2) Student(s)
(4) Administrator(s)
(7) Other(s) or partner not known
NOTE: If partners are in same category, write only number of that category (e.g., romance between teachers, write 1; between students, 2.) If partners in two different categories, write sum of numbers (e.g., between teacher and student, write 3).

38. Is there any evidence of learning (i.e., changed attitude, knowledge, or behavior) as a consequence of the educational process? If so, describe and explain. (Leave parenthesis blank.)

39. Is there any indication or portrayal of any kind of training or preparation for teaching? Write in number of major type, if any, from list below. State others, explain.
(1) Teacher training institution (specify kind)
(2) Training in subject matter (-"-)
(3) Professional or other experience (-"-)
(4) Other specialized training (-"-)

40. Is there any indication of reasons for choosing teaching as an occupation? Write in number of major reason (if any) from list below; state others, explain.
(1) As a lifetime professional career (no specific reason)
(2) As a temporary occupation (e.g., until marriage; state reason, if given)
(3) Primarily to support family or other dependents
(4) Love of children
(5) Family tradition
(6) Inspired by someone
(7) To spread knowledge; further ideals; fill needs of society
(8) To gain experience or knowledge which can then be used in some way other than teaching (specify)

41. Does a teacher give up, expect to give up, or seriously contemplate giving up teaching? Write in number of major reasons, if any; state others, explain.
(1) Beacause of marriage
(2) Inadequate salary
(3) Heavy workload
(4) Frustrations, conflicts of teaching

FORM B (continued)

41. (continued)
    (5) Retirement; completion of specific assignment
    (6) Discharged (state reason)
    (7) Finds a better job
    (8) Purely personal or other reasons (explain)

42. Write in number and describe major administrative action affecting teachers, if any. State others, explain.
    (1) Hiring, firing (state on what basis)
    (2) Supervising, assisting in duties; advising
    (3) Re-assigning to other school or tasks
    (4) Controlling, reprimanding, disciplining
    (5) Routine administrative contact
    (6) More intimate professional or personal contact aside from the above

43. What types of non-teaching activities do teachers and administrators engage in frequently or typically? Write in number of major type, if any; state others, explain.
    (1) Professional activities (organizations, union, meetings, conferences, studies — state which)
    (2) Community activities (including PTA, political, civic, religious, etc.)
    (3) Sports (aside from coaching as part of teaching duties)
    (4) Popular recreation and amusement (dancing, drinking, card playing, etc. -- state which)
    (5) Business, part-time job, money-making
    (6) Popular cultural activities (magazines, movies, radio-TV, etc.)
    (7) Other cultural activities (concerts, plays, opera, museum, etc.)
    (8) General social activities (aside from, or including, many of the above -- specify which)

44. What is the general outcome of events? List most appropriate number; state "moral" or implicit lesson, if any.
    (1) Clearly happy ending; success
    (2) Clearly unhappy or tragic ending; failure
    (3) Mixed, both, uncertain, unclear
    (4) No "outcome" that can be classified

SIDE II (Form B)

On the other (blank) side of card, write as full summary as space permits. Whenever possible, also explain themes and elements marked under Question 27, and propositions marked under Question 28, unless clear from summary.

Whenever possible attach pertinent excerpts, quotes, illustrations, or original publication, transcript, recording, etc.

FORM C (SIDE I)

Fill out separate FORM C card for each character. Do not mark this sheet.

A: Write in name of character (Encircle M if the major character).

B: Write in title (same as under Question 1 on Form B)

C: Write in your (analyst's) name

FORM C (continued)

1. Sex of character. Write in parenthesis:
   (1) if male
   (2) if female
   (3) if unidentifiable

2. Age of character. Write in parenthesis:
   (1) if primary school age (kindergarten or elementary)
   (2) if secondary school age (jr. high and high school)
   (3) if young adult, college age
   (4) if young adult, past college age
   (5) if middle age
   (6) if past middle age but not old
   (7) if old age
   (8) if age unidentifiable or described as "ageless," "hard to tell how old," etc.
   (9) if age changes from one period to another; narrator describes youth; flashback
   (10) if other; explain on other side of card

3. Marital and family status. Write in parenthesis:
   (1) if unmarried young adult (marriageable age) living with family
   (2) if unmarried young adult independent of family (or family not indicated)
   (3) if unmarried middle age or older living with parent or relative
   (4) if unmarried middle age or older independent of family (or family not indicated)
   (5) young adult living with family expects to marry
   (6) independent young adult (family not indicated) expects to marry
   (7) middle age or older expects to marry
   (8) married or has been married (divorced, widowed), no children indicated
   (9) married or has been married, has (or has had) children
   (10) marries during story

4. Role. Write in parenthesis number corresponding to major relevant role played by character. State others, specify.
   (1) Teacher, professor, coach, tutor, other instructional personnel
   (2) School or college administrator
   (3) Student, pupil
   (4) Community representative (Board member, government official)
   (5) Other professional (lawyer, doctor, engineer, etc.)
   (6) Friend, relative, spouse, other associate of teacher or administrator (indicate which)
   (7) Friend, relative, spouse, other associate of student or pupil (indicate which)

   NOTE: If role changes, write in number of major role, state change. If major role not on list but character appears as one of the above in a secondary role, write in number of that role, explain. If other, explain.

5. Type of school or educational institution or process, if any, with which character is mainly associated. If character is not directly associated with any, write (0) in parenthesis. Otherwise mark as directed in Form B, Question 12. In space explain, specify.

6. - 35. Rate character on each scale. Follow same directions as in Form B, Questions 13-26.

FORM C (continued)

36. Write in nature of occupation or activity directly related to schools or education, if any. State subject matter(s) taught or studied; nature of administrative or other position related to schools or education. (Leave parenthesis blank.)

37. Write in nature of major activity or occupation not directly related to schools or education. If primary occupation or activity relates to education and has been stated above, give secondary occupation or activity (part time or second job, housewife, illegal activity, etc.).

38. State nationality (citizenship, not national origin). (Leave parenthesis blank.)

39. State national origin, ethnic, racial, religious background. Write in parenthesis most appropriate number; explain.
(1) Nationality same, or assumed to be same, as citizenship. No indication of minority origin or background
(2) National origin different from citizenship, or inferred to be different on the basis of name, accent, etc. (Foreign born or parents foreign born)
(3) Non-white (specify race)
(4) Native-born ethnic minority in country of citizenship; white
(5) Member of religious minority in country of citizenship
(6) More than one of the above; other. Specify

40. Education. Indicate highest schooling or professional training achieved; name degree obtained, if any.
(1) Still in school (indicate primary, secondary, college; except graduate student)
(2) Out of school, has not completed high school
(3) Out of school, high school graduate
(4) Out of school; had some college, but no degree
(5) College graduate with a bachelor's degree or equivalent; out of school
(6) Graduate student working for a degree (name degree)
(7) Has master's degree or equivalent; out of school
(8) Has doctor's degree or equivalent; out of school
(9) Has professional or other special degree or diploma
(10) Assumed to have some higher or professional degree, but unspecified

41. Health, physical and mental. If only one of the following, write in the appropriate number; if more than one, write in sum of all appropriate numbers. Specify illness or injury.
(0) Normal, healthy throughout
(1) Suffers from some physical illness (not injury)
(2) Suffers from physical injury
(4) Suffers from mental illness, serious emotional disturbance (requiring care or therapy, whether given or not)
(8) Suffers from bodily handicap, deformity, abnormality

42. Social-economic status. Write in most appropriate number; indicate actual status of character for the most part (not ambition, destination, or ultimate achievement. See subsequent questions for these). Judge status on basis of explicit evidence or clear inference; take into account family background if child or youth (but not necessarily if adult); income (state actual income when known), prestige, appearance, etc.
(0) Cannot classify; ambiguous; not sufficient evidence
(1) Upper class; title or wealth; great power or prestige
(2) Middle class; moderate or comfortable income; white-collar type work
(3) Lower class; manual labor; meager income; little power or prestige
(4) Outside of class structure: illegal occupation, member of armed forces or other service with no indication of status

FORM C (continued)

43. Does character's social-economic status change? Write in:
   - (0) if no change
   - (1) if character moves up or is expected to move up in status
   - (2) if character moves down or is expected to move down in status

44. Family's social-economic status. Write in:
   - (0) if same as character's own, not indicated, or not clear
   - (1) if lower than character's own
   - (2) if higher than character's own
   - (3) if family expects character to rise above family status
   - (4) if family expects character to fall below family status

45. Spouse's social-economic status, if any. Write in:
   - (0) none, not clear, same as character
   - (1) lower than that of character
   - (2) higher than that of character
   - (3) Changes

46. Describe character's social, academic, vocational or professional aspiration, if any. Does character strive for some type of work, knowledge, social, vocational, professional advancement? If so, what type? Explain. (Leave parenthesis blank.)

47-48. Indicate primary goal or value held by character. Write in number of most appropriate category from list below; state specific goal or value; explain.

49-50. Indicate second major goal or value (if any) held by character. Write in number of most appropriate category from list below; state specific goal or value; explain.

Categories of goals and values

(01) Safety, self-preservation

(02) Escape from law, concealment of guilt, evasion of consequences of crime

(03) Health; adjustment; bodily or mental integrity

(04) Freedom of expression; individualism

(05) Material success, wealth, financial security, making a living, job

(06) Comfort, leisure, pleasure, self-indulgence

(07) Power, domination, mastery over others

(08) Adventure, thrill, satisfaction or impulse

(09) Love, friendship, affection, cooperation, belonging, acceptance

(10) Home, family, children

(11) Sex but without love or romance

(12) Fame, popularity, prestige

(13) Justice, duty, public service

FORM C (continued)

Categories of goals and values (continued)

(14) Idealism, a way of life, a better world

(15) Truth, beauty, knowledge; art, science, professional goals; productivity, creativity; learning, self-development

(16) Hatred, revenge, defiance, destruction, spite, brutality

(17) Honesty, honor

51. What barrier, difficulty, problem does character encounter in seeking goals and values? Write in number of the category of major barrier, etc., from the list below. Note exact nature of barrier, difficulty, problem.

52. Write in parenthesis number of second major difficulty (if any).

Categories of barriers, problems

(1) Society, law, customs, tradition; enemy; impersonal authority of any kind; officials acting as representatives of authority (employer, administrator, government or other superiors).

(2) Nature or the elements; illness, injury, physical hardship

(3) Other people acting as individuals; personal conflict, trickery, hatred, jealousy, rivalry, ignorance, etc.

(4) Self; mental or emotional block; fear, phobia, obsession; weakness; lack of knowledge, training, care, courage, etc.

53. What is the principal means typical of character's actions or striving toward goals? Write in most appropriate number from list below. Specify, explain.

54. What is other major means (if any) character uses to achieve aims? Write in number from list below.

Categories of means

(1) Hard work, industriousness, perseverance

(2) Luck, chance, fate, accident, coincidence

(3) Trickery, deceit, cunning

(4) Knowledge, intellect, information

(5) Charm, attractiveness, kindness

(6) Force, power, firmness, discipline, strength

(7) Persuasion, argument

In the following four questions, designate character's involvement, or threatened involvement, in illegal or violent activity of any kind (except purely verbal). Write most appropriate numbers on first line; use next two lines to explain.

FORM C (continued)

55. Character attempts or engages in illegal action directed against
   (1) teacher, administrator
   (2) student
   (4) parent or relative of student
   (8) other

56. Character attempts or engages in violent action directed against
   (1) teacher, administrator
   (2) student
   (4) parent or relative of student
   (8) other

57. Character subjected to illegal action or attempt by
   (1) teacher, administrator
   (2) student
   (4) parent or relative of student
   (8) other

58. Character subjected to violent action by
   (1) teacher, administrator
   (2) student
   (4) parent or relative of student
   (8) other

   NOTE: In space, describe nature of illegal and/or violent activity, who initiated or provoked it and why, what role character played. If character is not involved in any illegal or violent action, use space to indicate most extreme type of action of any kind in which character is involved.

In the following series of questions, describe character's relationship to up to three other persons. Each other person will be designated by writing in the most appropriate numbered answers to four questions, all on one line. Use the next two lines to indicate nature and outcome of relationship. Select three most important relationships.

59. Write in the number of the category into which first other person belongs. See categories under Form C, Question 4. If none of these, write (8).

60. Write in (1) if other person is of the same sex as the character
   (2) if the other person is of the opposite sex, but not a romantic partner
   (3) if the other person is a romantic partner, or has any romantic or sexual attraction for the character (or vice versa) and if the outcome of the romance is successful for the character.
   (4) if the other person is a romantic partner, but the outcome of the romance is uncertain or mixed for the character
   (5) if the other person is a romantic partner, but the outcome of the romance is unsuccessful for the character

61. Write in (1) if other person is of lower status or standing than character (in terms of social class, power, authority, prestige, family relationship, etc.)
   (2) if other person is of higher status than character
   (3) if other person is of equal status
   (4) if unclear or if relative status changes

FORM C (continued)

62. Write in (1) if other person is mostly friendly with or supports character
(2) if other person is mostly antagonist, rival, enemy of character
(3) if other person is neither or both, or relationship changes

Use next two lines to indicate nature and outcome of relationship. Then describe character's relationship with two other persons, if possible, in the same manner.

63. See instructions under Question 59.

64. See instructions under Question 60.

65. See instructions under Question 61.

66. See instructions under Question 62.

67. See instructions under Question 59.

68. See instructions under Question 60.

69. See instructions under Question 61.

70. See instructions under Question 62.

Use space under each line of numbered questions to indicate nature and outcome of relationship with second and third other person.

71. Indicate nature of place, locale, setting in which character primarily appears. Write in most appropriate number from list below; state others, specify.
(1) Classroom
(2) Athletic field, gym
(3) School or college (etc.) grounds other than above
(4) School or college, etc., offices, halls, meeting rooms
(5) Private home
(6) Office, factory, farm, other place of work
(7) Place of recreation or amusement (specify)
(8) Elsewhere in community (specify)

72. List leisure time activities or habits of character, if any. Write in appropriate number, or, if more than one, sum of numbers. State others, explain if necessary.
(1) Reading, movies, TV, other mass media or cultural activities (describe)
(2) Drinking, dancing, smoking
(4) Physical exercise, sports (state kind, spectator or participant)
(8) Entertaining friends or relatives, visiting, dating

73. Describe character's physical appearance and manner. Note if wears glasses: comment on demeanor - severe, gay, down-to-earth, etc., -- clothes, speech, mannerisms, if any. (Leave parenthesis blank.)

74. Of all the things character does or has done, in what is he (or she) the most able, skillful, or competent? State, explain. (Leave parenthesis blank.)

75. Of all the things character does or has done, in what is he (or she) the least competent? State, explain. (Leave parenthesis blank.)

76. State character's success or failure in terms of others' initial (or overall) expectations. Write in:
(1) if character was expected to succeed by most others, and did succeed (i.e., fulfilled most others' expectations)
(2) if character was expected to succeed but did not
(3) if character was expected to fail and did fail
(4) if character was expected to fail but succeeded
(5) if neither, both, ambiguous, uncertain
NOTE: Explain character's fulfillment of others' expectations, if indicated. Note who (or what) inspired success or caused failure, if known.

FORM C (continued)

77. Indicate final outcome in terms of character's own goals. Write in
    (1) if character is expected to live and achieves goals, meets with success
    (2) if character lives but does not achieve goals or fails
    (3) if character dies or is expected to die, but achieves goals, succeeds
    (4) if character dies or is expected to die and does not achieve goals; fails
    (5) if more than one, unclear, not indicated
    NOTE: In space indicate final outcome. State any explicit or clearly inferred moral or lesson.

78. Consider each of the following propositions in the light of what you know about character. Mark corresponding boxed numbers along top edge of card. Write plus sign over number if proposition definitely fits character; minus sign if proposition definitely does not fit character; encircle number if relevant but fitness unclear. If no evidence or opportunity to judge either way, do not mark.
    (1) Seems to enjoy children, students
    (2) Hoodwinked by others
    (3) Shies away from controversy
    (4) Takes part in many activities
    (5) Demands strict attention
    (6) Knows many subjects
    (7) Works well with superiors
    (8) Good relations with teachers
    (9) Reserved, quiet around people
    (10) Seems prim and prissy
    (11) Attends cultural activities
    (12) Initiates romance
    (13) Values exactness, orderliness above other things
    (14) Member of fraternity, sorority
    (15) Casually and informally dressed
    (16) Exercises self-control
    (17) More interested in knowledge than in many activities
    (18) Desires romance but does not take the initiative
    (19) Is a leader and organizer
    (20) Helps students outside of class
    (21) Bears up under hardship, sorrow
    (22) Inept in difficult situation
    (23) Loses out in romance
    (24) Makes sacrifices for the sake of others
    (25) Participates in community affairs
    (26) Takes part in professional organization or activity

TURN CARD TO OTHER SIDE. WRITE FULL DESCRIPTION OF CHARACTER, ROLE, FUNCTIONS. GIVE PERTINENT DIRECT QUOTES OR DESCRIPTIONS WHEN POSSIBLE. ATTACH TO FORM B.

4 2 1 7 4 2 1 7 4 2 1 7 4 2 1 7 4 2 1 7 4 2 1 7 4 2 1
27 26 25 24 23 22 21 20 19 18 17 16 15 14 13 12 11 10 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1

FORM B SIDE I A: B:( ) C:( ) D: E: F:

1( )	13 small: : : : : : : :large
2( )	14 useful: : : : : : : :useless
3( )	15 childish: : : : : : : :adult
4( )	16 practical: : : : : : : :impractical
5( )	17 difficult: : : : : : : :easy
6( )	18 permissive: : : : : : : :authoritarian
7( )	19 scientific: : : : : : : :unscientific
8( )	20 brawny: : : : : : : :brainy
9( )	21 unfriendly: : : : : : : :friendly
10( )	22 down-to-earth: : : : : : : :academic
11( )	23 low standards: : : : : : : :high standards
	24 broad-minded: : : : : : : :petty
12( )	25 pleasant: : : : : : : :unpleasant
	26 stupid: : : : : : : :intelligent

27: Mark in numbered boxes on right. 28: Mark in numbered boxes on top

29( )
30( )
31( )
32( )
33( )
34( )
35( )
36( )
37( )
38( )
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43( )
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1 2 4 7 1 2 4 7 1 2 4 7 1 2 4 7 1 2 4 7 1 2 4
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23

2 1 7 4 2 1 7 4 2 1 7 4 2 1 7 4 2 1 7 4 2 1
22 21 20 19 18 17 16 15 14 13 12 11 10 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27
1 2 4 7 1 2 4 7 1 2 4 7 1 2 4 7 1 2 4 7 1 2 4 7 1 2 4

27 26 25 24 23 22 21 20 19 18 17 16 15 14 13 12 11 10 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1

FORM C SIDE I A:M B: C:

1( ) 2( ) 3( ) 4( )	36( )
5( )	37( )
6 tall: : : : : : : :short	38( ) 39( )
7 feminine: : : : : : : :masculine	40( ) 41( )
8 aloof: : : : : : : :responsive	42( ) 43( )44( )45( )
9 changeable: : : : : : : :stable	46( )
10 unselfish: : : : : : : :selfish	47-48( )
11 excitable: : : : : : : :calm	49-50( )
12 learned: : : : : : : :ignorant	51( ) 52( )
13 tough: : : : : : : :delicate	53( ) 54( )
14disobedient: : : : : : : :obedient	55( ) 56( ) 57( ) 58( )
15 comic: : : : : : : :tragic	
16 honest: : : : : : : :dishonest	
17 inactive: : : : : : : :active	59( ) 60( ) 61( ) 62( )
18 moral: : : : : : : :immoral	
19 bungling: : : : : : : :efficient	
20 clean: : : : : : : :dirty	63( ) 64( ) 65( ) 66( )
21 weak: : : : : : : :strong	
22 happy: : : : : : : :sad	
23 dull: : : : : : : :sharp	67( ) 68( ) 69( ) 70( )
24 fair: : : : : : : :unfair	
25 sexy: : : : : : : :frigid	
26 tyrannical: : : : : : : :democratic	71( )
27 purposeful: : : : : : : :purposeless	72( )
28 cruel: : : : : : : :kind	73( )
29 colorful: : : : : : : :colorless	74( )
30 unsociable: : : : : : : :sociable	75( )
31 bold: : : : : : : :timid	76( )
32 repulsive: : : : : : : :attractive	
33 free: : : : : : : :restrained	77( )
34 bad: : : : : : : :good	
35 young: : : : : : : :old	78 Mark along top edge of card